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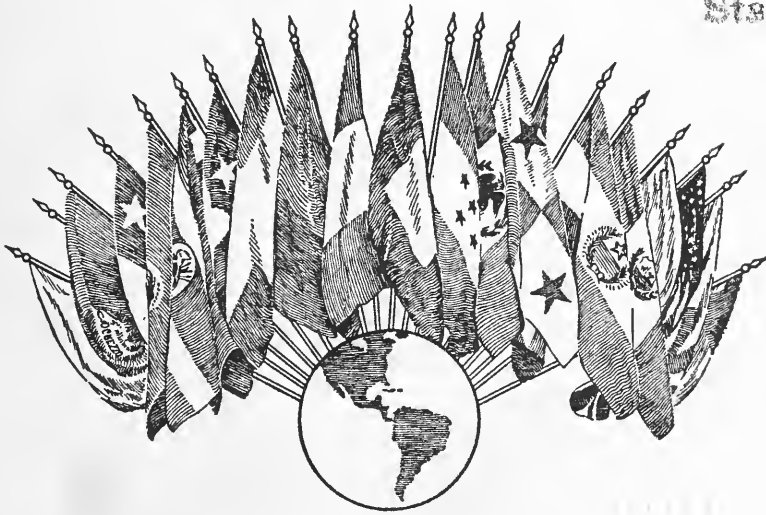
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WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now nearly 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

Jan. 21, 1946 The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

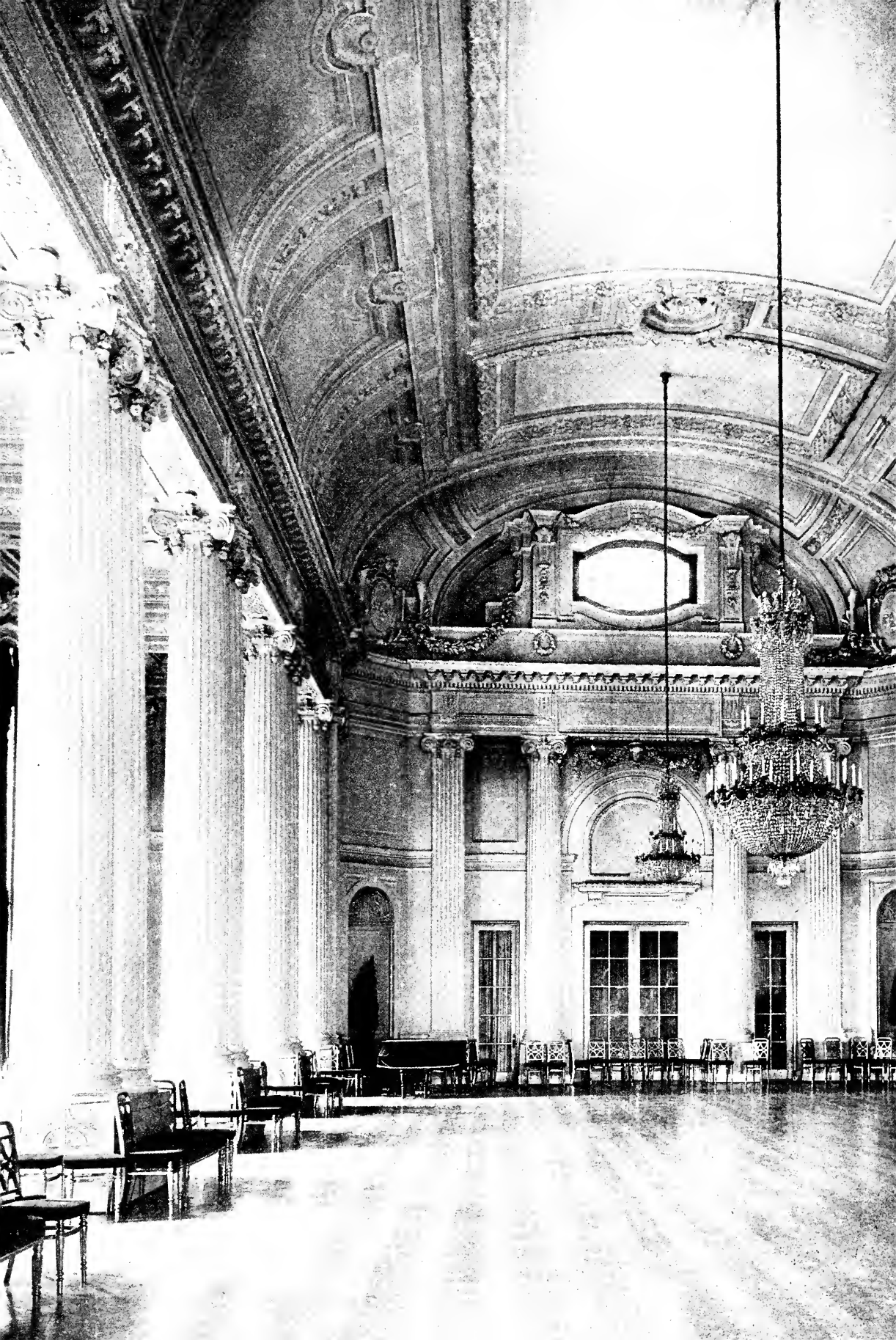
and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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in the "Readers' Guide" in your library)

ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: HALL OF THE AMERICAS, PAN AMERICAN UNION





Photograph by Ynés Mexía

ALONG THE AMAZON

The many varieties of stately palms, on some of which grow nuts yielding oils valuable in commerce, give majesty to the forest along the mightiest of rivers.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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JANUARY 1942

Fourth Centenary of the Discovery of the Amazon

DÍDIO I. A. DA COSTA

Captain, Brazilian Army and Navy; Chief of the Fourth Division, General Staff

THE discovery of the Amazon was outstanding in the remarkable series of events that occurred during the exciting period when the New World became known to the Old.

While the Amazon, the fabulous King of Rivers, lacks the historical background of the Ganges or the Nile, it perhaps surpasses them in the mystery with which the imagination of man has endowed it as he endeavors to pierce the mists of the pre-Columbian era.

Although its history before the Renaissance explorations may be impenetrable, one thing is certain, that its majestic course, from remote Andine heights in the west to the sea 3,900 miles away, seemed to early explorers, and was later recognized as being, one of America's most magnificent phenomena. The Amazon basin

embraces an area of 2,160,000 square miles, of which approximately 1,500,000 are in Brazil. No other river system in the world is more beautiful or more extensive.

A French tradition has it that Jean Cousin of Dieppe discovered the Amazon in 1488, and that his chief lieutenant on that expedition was one Pinzón, the same mariner who later accompanied Columbus.

At all events, Vicente Yáñez Pinzón, early in 1500, sighted the northern coast of Brazil, and sailed along it, stopping for some days off Cabo do Norte. The presence of fresh water there, at a great distance from the coast, indicated the existence of a mighty river, which Pinzón called the Fresh Water Sea. He did not land because he feared that the great bore (which advances at a rate of from 10 to 15 miles an hour with a breaking wall of

water 5–12 feet high), would damage his vessels.

Nearly forty years later, in 1539,¹ Gonzalo Pizarro, a brother of that Francisco Pizarro who subjugated the Inca Empire, left Quito with 300 Spaniards and 4,000 Indians in search of El Dorado, the legendary ruler whose realm was said to lie somewhere east of the Andes. Gonzalo Pizarro reached the Coca River valley, but only after hardships and hunger had decimated the men under his command. In this emergency, a boat of sorts was constructed and fifty men under Francisco Orellana were sent downstream in search of food and aid for Pizarro and his sadly diminished band.

Three days later, the bark had carried Orellana and his companions to the Coca's confluence with the Napo. They saw on either bank of the river virgin forests, dense and continuous, but found none of the resources they sought. Because the vessel was heavy and the current strong, the party decided it would be impossible to retrace their journey, and so committed themselves to the doubtful enterprise of following the waters to a haven of safety.

It was not until about six weeks later that the little band of explorers reached the main stream of the Amazon, whose mighty rush of waters amazed them. Orellana was excited at the thought of having reached the "White Sea," whose waters were supposed to flow over precious stones and golden sands, and expected soon to see in the distance, on the banks of this liquid highway, the palaces of

silver and gold reputed to stand in Manoa, the gleaming capital of those enchanted regions.

The expedition followed the main channel of the Amazon. At the junctions of the Uatamá and the Nhamundá, beardless, pale-skinned Indians kept them from landing. In relating his adventurous voyage, Orellana claimed that they were the doughty Amazons,—hence the name of the river.

On August 26, 1541, Orellana reached the Atlantic. Thus nearly two years passed from the time the expedition under Gonzalo Pizarro left Quito and the arrival of Orellana at the sea coast. He continued around northern South America to Trinidad, and thence returned eventually to Europe.

Even after the news of the great discovery had reached the civilized world, it was not until 1616 that the enormous river basin began to be explored and subjugated. Two Portuguese, Francisco Caldeira Castelo Branco and Pedro Teixeira, drove out the Dutch settlers on the banks of the Xingú and the English on the left bank of the Amazon.

The Portuguese gradually expelled other Europeans who had ventured into that territory. They conquered the Indians, working tenaciously and fearlessly, even cruelly, following the universal custom of the time. Thanks to the audacity and ability of Pedro Teixeira, the tremendous activity of Bento Maciel Parente, in 1619, and the collaboration of the religious orders, the Portuguese had established their control over the whole region by about 1632.

Thorough exploration of the famous river was begun on October 28, 1637, under the leadership of Pedro Teixeira, with Pedro da Costa Favela and other officers, 70 soldiers, and 1,500 Indians under him. The expedition traveled in

¹ *There is disagreement among historians as to the exact year in which the expedition took place. Early chroniclers, on whose writings later historians have based their statements, give the dates cited above; Medina, in his edition (1894) of Carvajal's thitherto unpublished official account of the voyage, states that Pizarro left Quito in the last days of February, 1541; and that Orellana left the main party on the brigantine on December 26, reached the Amazon on February 2, 1542, and sailed into the Atlantic on August 26, 1542.*—EDITOR.



Courtesy of Pan American Airways

A HOTEL IN BELÉM, CAPITAL OF THE STATE OF PARÁ

Belém, a large city near the mouth of the Amazon, is a stop on the Pan American Airways routes to Manaus and Rio de Janeiro.

70 canoes to the Napo; then, at its confluence with the Agarica, the party divided. Teixeira went up the Coca River to Baeza and thence overland to Quito, where he arrived on October 20, 1638, almost a year after starting out, and nearly a century from the time Pizarro's expedition had left that same city for the east. Teixeira quitted Quito on February 16, 1639, and rejoined Costa Favela, who had marked on the left bank of the Napo the boundary of the Portuguese possessions, four hundred miles from the mouth of that river. On December 12, 1639, the expedition arrived at Belém.

Exploration, steady colonization, the introduction of Christianity, violent reprisals, the burning of villages, and the massacre or capture of the Indians succeeded one another during the many years in which the Amazon was explored and conquered.

Forts were built: S. José do Rio Negro (1669), Santo Antônio de Macapá (1688), Tapajós (1697). The Toras Indians were expelled from the banks of the Madeira River in 1716, the Juínas Indians were fought on the Juruá in 1720. Gradually the vast territory of the famous basin became known, at least superficially, and as decade followed decade, the permanent settlement by Europeans and the extension of their enterprises forged a new civilization for those far-flung regions of incomparable and glorious vegetation, abundant fauna, hidden wealth, and thousands of miles of navigable rivers.

In 1750, little more than two centuries after Orellana's voyage, there were 46 settlements, far from the ocean, on the Portuguese Upper Amazon.

Although the legend of El Dorado proved to be false and gold and precious stones were never found beneath the



Photograph by Ynés Mexía

SAILBOATS AT SANTARÉM

The width of the Amazon—approximately 170 miles at its mouth and one mile at Tabatinga, 2,000 miles from the Atlantic—permits the use of sailboats in river trade.

mighty waters of the Amazon, as Pizarro and his rapacious Spaniards had fondly hoped, there was unfolded instead the splendid reality of a vast virgin world, capable of nourishing and breeding a new civilization cut off from its European trunk, a world fabulous in wealth, in land and water resources, in mineral deposits, and in magnificent flora and fauna.

The history of the Amazonian region after its discovery could not fail to be stirring. In the centuries when it was a colony, in the years of the two Empires and of the republic, down to the present day, men have struggled to know it, to populate it, and to profit from it.

Brazilian Amazonia includes today the States of Pará and Amazonas, the Territory of Acre (which includes the Upper Purús, the Acre, the Upper Juruá, and the Tarauacá), and the northern part of the State of Mato Grosso.

This vast region, about whose mysteries so much has been said and about whose geography so much has been learned and has been and will be written, cannot be fully described here, or even barely outlined. Only a few facts can be given in commemorating the fourth centenary of the discovery of this great American river.

While many interesting pages of Brazilian history deal with the conquest, exploration, settlement, culture, and industries of the Amazon, innumerable others will have to be written to discuss adequately its present and future development. The mind of man is stimulated at the possibilities of this vast section of Brazil, profusely endowed with natural highways or "moving roads." Its deep waters fertilize and permit the economic exploitation of great tracts of land that await man's labor, offer valuable timber, and are unquestionably full of treasures.

Here are some of the facts referred to above. In the period of greatest drought, the Amazon discharges 247 billion cubic feet of water daily. At any time of year great ocean liners can go up the Amazon as far as Iquitos, beyond the boundary of Brazil. At low water, the depth of the principal channel is never less than 49 feet, and at high water, it has been known to reach 197 feet. The subsidiary channels are from one to four miles wide. In the annual floods the water rises from 15 to 23 feet in the Lower Amazon, and from 32 to 46 in the Upper. At Tabatinga, nearly 2,000 miles from the Atlantic and only 270 feet above sea level, the shores of the river are still more than a mile apart. At its mouth the Amazon is approximately 170 miles wide.

R. H. Whitbeck, in his well-known *Economic Geography of South America*, stresses the amazing size of the Amazon. He points out that only by constant dredging can a depth of nine feet be maintained on the Mississippi between New Orleans and the mouth of the Ohio, and an annual expenditure of \$100,000,000 is necessary to secure a minimum depth of nine feet on the Ohio River the year round. In contrast, the Amazon has an average depth of more than 100 feet for a distance equal to the length of the Mississippi, and in its lower course its depth exceeds 200 feet. After mentioning that ocean-going steamships ascend the Amazon to Iquitos, a distance of 2,300 miles, he adds that each of the main tributaries is navigable for smaller steamers for 500 to 1,000 miles.

One of the pages of *L'Amazonie Brésilienne*, by Le Cointe, may be summarized in the statement that the Amazon has the largest basin in the world, estimated at 2,160,000 square miles, exclusive of the Tocantins basin. The Mississippi-Missouri basin is estimated at only

1,362,000 square miles. In brief, the Amazon is incomparably superior to any other watercourse.

Le Cointe adds that the great rivers of tropical Africa, the Congo and the Niger, which water regions similar to the Amazon savannas, do not begin to offer, as means of penetration and communication, systems of navigable channels that can rival, in ease of access and in extension, the network that the Amazon and its affluents extend over half South America.

Le Cointe also maintains that the Amazon, which is navigable for its entire extent in Brazilian territory—that is, for more than 1,900 miles, between Tabatinga and its southern mouth, or more than 2,000 miles from Tabatinga to the mouth of the Pará River—can be navigated, without difficulty, to a distance of 2,900 miles from the ocean, even 3,100 by ascending the Huallaga. The Amazon and its affluents, draining parts of Brazil, Peru, Bolivia, Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela, form a navigable system of more than 31,000 miles, on whose waters ply more than 200 vessels of all tonnages in addition to many locally-built steam launches.

Other interesting facts are given in the comprehensive volume *Brasil, 1940-41, Relação das Condições Geográficas, Econômicas e Sociais*, published under the auspices of Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, the Minister of Foreign Affairs. Under the editorship of Sr. José Jobim, many eminent Brazilians have contributed valuable articles on various phases of the Brazilian scene. Since the facts from such a source are official, we shall cite some of them here.

The tropical climate of the Amazon region is described by Dr. Salomão Serebrenick of the National Meteorological Service as isosuperhumid (that is, with humidity constant throughout the year) and superhumid, and he concludes: "Man, inherently endowed with great elasticity



Photograph by Ynés Mexía

AN AMAZON RIVER STEAMER

Large boats that ply the Amazon are screened for the comfort of passengers.

as regards adaptation to surrounding climatic conditions, has no reason to fear, as far as the climate of this country is concerned, that he will be uncomfortable or that his physical and intellectual energies will be weakened."

In referring to the healthfulness of the Brazilian climate, Serebrenick proves certain beliefs to be erroneous and declares that in no case should illness be laid to the climate, for it has been fully confirmed that the country had originally no endemic disease. Summarizing various observations and beliefs, he writes, "Brazil in the xvth century had no tropical diseases, although its climate was tropical. On the contrary, history shows that it was the Europeans who imported, among other diseases, smallpox, yellow fever, cholera, the plague, and trachoma, maladies that although brought from other climes, thrived here and were later checked not-

withstanding the climate. It was by specific prophylaxis and by preventive measures that Brazil rid itself of yellow fever, the common communicable diseases, and the important epidemic diseases."

On the plains and plateaus in the regions of the Upper and Lower Amazon and in its estuary, in an area where the humidity fluctuates between 80 and 95 percent, the characteristic flora is the *Hylaea brasiliensis* (the term Humboldt used to describe the botanic region comprising the forest fringes of the watercourses throughout the Amazon basin). "It should be noted that, in the Amazon region," Serebrenick goes on to say, "not everything is *hylaea*; there are also extensive open areas, determined by certain conditions of the climate and the soil, these last being, because of their variety, the cause of a certain diversification of types among the forests themselves."

In the equatorial region there are three types of forest: those on the uplands, those on the lowlands, and those in swamps. These are characterized, respectively, by the Brazil-nut trees (*Bertholletia excelsa*); rubber trees (*Hevea brasiliensis*); and the *arapari* (*Vonapa acaciaefolia*), the *tachí* (*Triplaris surinamensis* Cham.), and the *mamorana* (*Pachira aquatica* Aubl.). There are also three types of non-forest lands, the savannas, the grasslands, and the false grasslands, those between the latter and the forest.

In the State of Amazonas forests or jungle cover an area of 650,000 square miles, and grasslands and other more or less open country, 55,000 square miles. In the State of Pará, jungle covers 355,000 square miles, the grasslands and similar areas, 170,000 square miles. In the Territory of Acre, jungle covers an area of 95,000 square miles. In these three parts of Amazonia, therefore, forests account for 1,100,000 square miles, and meadows and other open spaces for 225,000 square miles.

Characteristic plants of the Upper Amazon basin, which includes the whole State of Amazonas, include the murumuré palm, the *jarinas*, the cacao, the *guaraná*, the special flora of Roraima (the mountain that is the common boundary point of Brazil, Venezuela and British Guiana), and the large-flowered orchids. In the Lower Amazon, where there are extensive grasslands, the Guiana flora, rubber trees, and *vochisiaceas*, are to be found; in the estuary, the flora is more exuberant than along the Upper Amazon.

Serebrenick corroborates popular belief in his conclusion that the economic value of the equatorial forests is incalculable; the principal trees, besides those already mentioned, provide woods of world renown.

The Amazon valley has a remarkable

variety of animals, which include many species of monkeys (of which the *guariba*, or red howler, is the best known), the coati, the jaguar, the ocelot, the capybara (the largest rodent in the world), the agouti, the tapir, the peccary, the armadillo, the sloth, the boa and other snakes.

The population of the three Brazilian political subdivisions of Amazonia is estimated at 2,205,118, of whom 1,630,272 are to be found in the State of Pará, 454,433 in that of Amazonas, and 120,412 in the Territory of Acre. The slow settlement of the vast Amazon basin should be attributed not to the climate, but to different causes, similar to those operative in regions where immigration is sluggish, notwithstanding favorable circumstances. The population of Belém, the capital of Pará, is 309,235; of Manaus, the capital of Amazonas, 92,290; and of Rio Branco, 30,551.

In view of these facts, Amazonia may be said to be still unpopulated, in spite of its wealth and its climate, which was described in the nineteenth century by Matthew Fontaine Maury of the United States and Alfred Russel Wallace of England as mild and healthful. The fact that it is relatively unpeopled after four centuries does not mean that it will not have sometime a large population in proportion to its area and innumerable possibilities.

Brazilian annual-production statistics show many commodities from the Amazon, including mandioc flour, cacao, oranges, pineapple, Brazil nuts, vegetable oils, babassú nuts, coconuts, guaraná and woods, besides various industrial products.

Formerly, the Amazon region had a monopoly of rubber. In 1800, the year when the first shipment was sent to the United States, foreign trade in this commodity was insignificant. It began to be important after the introduction of steam navigation on the river in 1853, and the

opening of the Amazon in 1867 to international commerce. Activity increased rapidly thereafter, and the official value of exports through the port of Pará increased 700 percent in the 15 years 1868 to 1882.

Before that time, an American traveler, W. Lewis Herndon, said in his *Exploration of the Valley of the Amazon* (a report made to Congress in 1855), "I believe in fifty years Rio de Janeiro, without losing a tittle of her wealth and greatness, will be but a village to Pará, and Pará will be what New Orleans would long ago have been but for the activity of New York and her own fatal climate, the greatest city of the New World; Santarém will be St. Louis, and Barra [Manaus], Cincinnati."

He seemed to be correct as far as the period 1855 to 1882 was concerned because, up to the latter year, the increase in

trade was surprising; if it had not ceased, what would be the relative standing of the three cities mentioned?

In 1830, Goodyear discovered how to vulcanize rubber, a process which today has some 40,000 applications. Until 1910, the export of this commodity from the Amazon steadily increased. But by then the rubber plantations in Asia had come into bearing, and consequently Amazonia suffered from this foreign competition. In 1939, the region produced 19,366 tons and exported 11,835.

From Sr. José Auto da Cruz Oliveira's contribution on rubber to the above-mentioned volume *Brasil*, we have taken some interesting information on the Ford concession in the Amazon region.

The so-called Fordlandia plantations are on the banks of the Tapajós River, 110 miles south of Santarém; in the 8,400



Courtesy of A. D. Dias

AN AFFLUENT OF THE AMAZON

Small launches bring many products of remote Amazonian regions to centers where they are transhipped to larger boats.



MANAUS, THE LARGEST CITY IN AMAZONIA

Manaus, now a city of 92,000, had a period of fabulous prosperity as a center for rubber export until plantations in the Orient came into bearing. The opera house shown here was built in the city's heyday, when European companies delighted large audiences.

acres there are about 685,000 rubber trees, 200,000 of which are now ready to be tapped. The most important part of the concession is in Belterra, about 25 miles south of Santarém and 85 north of Fordlandia proper; here about 2,700,000

rubber trees have been planted. It is estimated that by 1945, 410,000 trees can be tapped regularly, and the monthly yield should be 226 tons of rubber, this amount to increase gradually until it reaches 450 tons in 1950.

At Belterra both selection and grafting will be carried out with high-yielding strains. Indeed, it is hoped that by 1948 Belterra will produce more than 5,400 tons of rubber a year, worth \$2,400,000 at the present price of 20 cents a pound.

In this concession rice, mandioc, castor beans, jute, cinnamon, ginger, tea, coffee, citrus fruits, pineapples, bananas and legumes are grown. Most of the food-crops are used to feed the 7,000 employes at Fordlandia and Belterra. The capital invested in the Ford concession is now \$8,000,000.

Cruz Oliveira emphasizes the fact that, to meet the needs of the Ford Company alone, the present plantations on the banks of the Tapajós should be trebled, and he notes that the United States government, in view of its national needs, is interested in cooperating with the American republics that produce this raw material, of which the United States is the world's chief importer.

In this brief summary, another aspect of Amazonia should be discussed, namely the Brazilian affluents of the Great River, many of which are important historically and geographically. Their tremendous length is impressive, for in Brazil alone there are seven more than 1,200 miles long.

The tributaries of the Amazon on the right bank are:

The *Javari*, 656 miles long, winding and deep. It forms the boundary between Peru and Brazil, and flows into the Solimões, as the upper reaches of the river in Brazil are sometimes called, opposite Tabatinga, through three months. During the high-water period it is navigable for 240 miles by vessels having a draft of 8 feet. Remate de Males is situated on this river.

The *Jandiatuba*, relatively unimportant.

The *Jutái*, 746 miles long, of which 435

are navigable, up to its confluence with the Caröem.

The *Juruá*, 2,040 miles, which flows through one of the most important rubber-producing regions. It is divided into the Lower, Middle, and Upper Juruá. The first section is navigable during the entire year, and the second during high water. The channel is narrow, deep, and capricious. On the Upper Juruá, according to legend, there lived a tribe of the Coatá-tapiuas, or Uginas Indians (Men with Tails). Its affluents are the Tarauacá, the Gregório, the Mú, the Breu, the Moa and the Amônea. On its bank is Cruzeiro do Sul, founded in 1904. On the Upper Amazon, opposite the mouth of the Juruá River, there is an island to which the rubber-gatherers gave the ironic name of Conscience Island, for there they were supposed to leave their consciences, which often prove burdensome in the jungle, before they entered it.

The *Tefé*, 615 miles. It is navigable by small steam launches at high water. It stretches out at its mouth into a lake 8.5 miles long with the salubrious town of Ega, or Tefé, on its right bank. It is a black-water river.

The *Coarí*, 370 miles. Copaiba trees grow on its banks.

The *Purús*, 2,175 miles, one of the most important affluents of the Amazon. In its basin are the greatest number of native rubber trees (*Hevea brasiliensis*). The Paramís Indians live here. It enters the Amazon by five mouths. Its course is winding, its waters blue, or clear, and there are many lateral channels. There is an enormous difference in the low and high-water levels. There is good fishing and hunting. In the southern part, well-preserved and very curious bones of huge prehistoric animals have been found. On the right bank eleven streams flow into it, among them the Acre River, and on the

left, five. Sena Madureira, a city founded in 1904, lies on the left bank of the Iaco River, a tributary of the Upper Purús.

The *Madeira*, formed by the Beni and the Mamoré, is 2,160 miles long, and the largest affluent of the Amazon. Its total basin, approximately equal to that of the Volga, exceeds 540,000 square miles in extent. When the Madeira-Mamoré Railway was under construction, 7,000-ton vessels with a draft of 21 feet plied as far up as Pôrto Velho. Many islands, 52 of them large, are in the lower section of the river. The climate is good. There are many rubber-gathering centers. The river flows by the cities of Borba, Manicoré, Humaitá, Santo Antônio. Some of its affluents are large. It has 220 miles of falls and rapids.

The *Tapajós*, 1,240 miles long, is

formed by the Arinos and Juruena, which also have many affluents. The Tapajós itself has seven on the right bank and two on the left. It flows by Itaituba, Goiana, Santarém, and other towns. It is an important means of communication between the States of Mato Grosso and Amazonas. Some sections are navigable; in others there are many falls and rapids. Gold and diamonds have been found near the Rebojo rapids. This river traverses a region of savannas (Campos do Cururú to the east and Campos do Mucujazal to the west). To go by canoe from Santarém to Pôrto Velho takes 80 days.

The *Curuá* is of little importance.

The *Uruara* flows through a series of lakes.

The *Guajará* is unimportant.

The *Xingú* is 1,230 miles long; it flows



Courtesy of A. D. Dias

RAPIDS ON A TRIBUTARY OF THE AMAZON

Some rivers in the Amazon basin have falls and rapids preventing the passage of large boats, but many are navigable for hundreds of miles.



Photograph by Ynés Mexía

ON THE WESTERN BOUNDARY OF BRAZIL

A colonial tower on the Upper Amazon (sometimes called the Alto Solimões) recalls explorers of past centuries.

past Souzel, Pombal, Maruá, Pôrto de Moz. Its basin has been little explored, but it is known to be navigable to Souzel and above. There are many islands and a labyrinth of narrow channels above that town. The river has numerous falls and rapids. Rubber trees grow in that region also.

On the left bank the following rivers flow into the Amazon.

The *Putumaio*, or *Içá*, 1,225 miles long. It rises in the Colombian Andes, and only about 200 miles of its lower course are in Brazil.

The *Japurá*. Its waters are blue, wide, shallow, navigable. There are falls and rapids. Its basin has been little explored.

The *Negro*, 1,860 miles long, rises in Colombia. Above the Cucuí there are rapids. For 490 miles it is navigable. On its banks are San Gabriel, Santa Isabel, Tomar, Moreira, Barcelos, Carvoeira, and Moura. Some of its many tributaries,

such as the Rio Branco, are important. Manaus, the capital of the State of Amazonas, and six miles upstream on the Negro from its confluence with the Amazon is an excellent port, 1,140 miles from the Atlantic. The depth of the river at Manaus varies from 39 to 78 feet.

The *Urubú* has a tortuous course, full of falls and rapids. It enters the Amazon by various channels. The easternmost forms the large and beautiful lagoon of Saracá.

The *Uatamá* is an elongated lake in its lower reaches; it has been little explored.

The *Nhamundá* (Jamundá) is full of falls and rapids and in its winding course there are many islands. According to legend, the famous Amazons, or *Icamiabas*, lived on the Upper Nhamundá. There, some stones called *muiraquitans*, *puúraquitans*, or Amazon stones, which these women wore as amulets, have been found, but no deposit of this stone has been discovered in the Amazon basin or in neighboring regions.

The stone is very common in eastern Asia, a fact used to corroborate the theory of the Asiatic origin of the American Indians.

The *Trombetas* is a deep river formed by the Capú and Mahú, which rise in the Acaraí mountains on the boundary with British Guiana. Its lower course is almost a straight line, but its middle course is slightly winding. Its total length is 466 miles. There are lakes on the alluvial plains along its banks, and a series of narrow islands in its channel. It has several tributaries. Its waters are blue and teem with fish. The jungle along its shores abounds in game and natural products. It has 17 falls and rapids. At the head of the Mina Falls, which are difficult to negotiate, is a *mucambo*, or refuge known as Maravita, which was established by fugitive slaves from the *fazendas* of the Lower Amazon. One of the affluents of the Trombetas, the Erepecurú, is the most direct means of communication with the region known as *Campos Gerais* (General Grasslands), which extend to the south of the Tumuc-Humac mountains; the Erepecurú has 33 rapids.

The *Campos Gerais*, wide grasslands lying between the two rivers just mentioned, about 186 miles from Óbidos, were first seen by civilized man in 1877, when Father J. Nicolino from Oriximiná visited that region. Their existence was verified by Antônio Gonçalves Tocantins in 1893, by L. V. do Couto in 1895, and by Mme. Coudreau in 1900.

As Le Cointe points out, the Trombetas, with its affluents, is one of the most interesting rivers of the Lower Amazon, not only because its upper basin consists in large part of these grasslands, but especially because of its forest wealth and the likelihood of mineral deposits in the territory through which it flows.

The *Curuá* descends from the *Campos*

Gerais. It has many falls and rapids, but is navigable in part.

The *Mãecurú* flows southward into a lake connected with the Amazon by the Gurupatuke River. It is navigable for part of its length by small steamers. It has waterfalls and rapids.

The *Parú*, 370 miles long, rises in the Tumuc-Humac mountains, and is navigable in part. It has 10 large rapids. Gold is found in its bed.

The *Jarí* also is 370 miles long, and rises in the same region as the headwaters of the Parú, but the Jarí is easier to navigate. There are several waterfalls in its course, one of which is magnificent.

These are the chief tributaries of the Amazon, according to Le Cointe. The space given to listing them by name, with brief descriptions, may seem to detract from what is due the majestic Amazon, as mighty as it is renowned—renowned for its volume, as well as for the impenetrable mystery that shrouds it.

The greatness of the Amazon, however, is the result of the tribute of other watercourses, great in themselves. From the point of view of geography alone, each affluent is a separate and vigorous watercourse. The immense river system that extends over the magnificent territory of Brazil and the neighboring nations has for many centuries invited human labor and offers the highest possible recompense to tens of millions of individuals of the civilized and happy community of the future. It was necessary to enumerate the names of the tributaries of the famous highway that penetrates equatorial and tropical South America in this commemorative essay because, geographically and historically, they are all famous.

It may appear strange that Amazonia, endowed with so many means of communication and with such great wealth, has not been as densely settled as other regions

of the earth and has not proved a new promised land. But promised lands have been found in different places. If America is the greatest of all promised lands so far offered to humanity, Amazonia, in the heart of America, has a similar destiny awaiting it in a future that for four centuries has been approaching slowly but inevitably.

That is what may reasonably be ex-

pected on this fourth centenary of the discovery of the Amazon.

Obviously, all the aspects of the Amazon cannot be treated, even superficially, no matter what approach adopted. Still, the bird's-eye view that we have just given, perforce rapid and necessarily imperfect, has as its sole purpose to record an event whose great geographical and historical significance is indisputable.



Marshall Field Amazon Expedition photograph

AN OCEAN-GOING STEAMER 2,300 MILES FROM THE SEA

Pedro Aguirre Cerda

President of Chile

In Memoriam

THE Pan American Union joins the Republic of Chile in mourning the death of the President, Pedro Aguirre Cerda, which occurred in Santiago on November 25, 1941.

President Aguirre, who assumed his high office on December 25, 1938, retired temporarily from his official duties on account of ill health some two weeks before his death, turning over the Executive Power to the Vice President, Dr. Gerónimo Méndez, chief of the Radical Party, of which the President himself was also a member.

President Aguirre had formulated a broad program relative to national welfare and development which he was carrying forward with the greatest enthusiasm. In spite of the fact that his arduous duties as President were making serious inroads on his health, he bravely persisted in his task and surrendered his post only when finally overcome by his last illness.

Pedro Aguirre Cerda's was a life dedicated wholly and unselfishly to work, to education, and to the service of his fellow men. He died at a time when his country more than ever needed the benefits of his administrative ability and his profound democratic convictions. His policy was at all times oriented toward inter-American unity. He was an acknowledged friend of the United States and a firm admirer of President Roosevelt's program of continental solidarity.

A long and brilliant public career pre-

pared him well for his task as President. He served his country at various times as deputy and senator in the National Congress, as Minister of Justice and Public Instruction, as Minister of the Interior, and as representative at numerous conferences and international congresses.

National progress, spiritual as well as material, was President Aguirre's guiding star during the years he headed the nation. His aim was to strengthen the union of the Chilean nation and, as he himself said on one occasion, to provide "new opportunities and possibilities for the humble man constantly to improve his social and economic condition in life."

His great love for his native land and his special interest in the welfare of his fellow-citizens were made plain when on January 24, 1939, there occurred the severe earthquake that destroyed many towns in Southern Chile, leaving sorrow and desolation in its wake among the thousands of persons living there. The President, accompanied by members of his cabinet, went immediately to the afflicted area in order personally to study the situation and to place at the service of the country and its citizens all the facilities of the Government. With unwavering spirit he devoted himself to establishing public agencies to carry on the relief work and to formulating and putting into effect a plan for the development of production that would give new vigor to industry and facilitate national reconstruction on a permanent basis.

In other fields, too, President Aguirre's clear-sighted policies have been notable. In spite of the closing of major European markets and other difficulties resulting from the war, Chile's trade balance has been maintained at a high level. In 1940, for example, there was an increase of 11 percent over the previous year, and at the same time commercial relations with the other American nations acquired new and increasing importance.

Devoted from early youth to teaching, and having served with distinction as a professor in various schools and as Minister of Justice and Public Instruction, President Aguirre applied himself, upon assuming the Executive Power, to the problem of illiteracy. "To govern is to educate" was the theme that, in his own words, inspired the action of his Government in that field. He increased the number of teachers and established many new schools, paying special heed to primary education. So successful were his efforts that the number of primary schools, which totaled 3,931 in 1939, increased to 4,214 the following year. Perceiving also the need for vocational training, he was responsible for the 42 trade schools and 7 agricultural schools that functioned in 1940, while at the same time the national budget carried an appropriation of 3,000,000 pesos for the establishment and maintenance of 12 new industrial training schools. In these varied educational and cultural activities, he did not ignore the plight of poor and needy school children. In 1940 the budget provided the very appreciable sum of 15,000,000 pesos for breakfasts, lunches, and clothing for those unfortunate pupils.

His mind was constantly occupied with ways and means for improving the standard of living and social conditions throughout the country. He initiated and promoted such public works as the reconstruction



of old tenements in accordance with plans of the General Health Bureau and Housing Bank; model low-cost housing projects; the creation of an organization known as *Defensa de la Raza y Aprovechamiento de las Horas Libres* (Defense of the Race and Utilization of Leisure Hours), the purpose of which was to divert men from unprofitable use of their spare time and give them an opportunity to improve themselves physically, intellectually, and socially through the establishment of community centers and clubs; the adoption of energetic measures to prevent increases in the cost of living, especially of articles of prime necessity; the installation of popular restaurants in various cities; the establishment of a system of credit in fifteen cities for the purpose of aiding the low-income groups that work in commerce,

industry, and agriculture; and the formation of many industrial and professional unions. Particular attention was given to the care of poor mothers and children, offering them the necessary instruction, food, and treatment to insure their healthy development.

"We are trying," he once said, "to find, by the moral and legal means at our disposal, an exact economic and social equation that will bring truer justice to the unfortunate, so that we may reach a state of harmonious fusion of social classes, all of them with equal rights within the borders of our common country, which makes us one in labor and in suffering."

During his administration, the President was confronted with the very difficult international situation caused by the European war. This led him to say, on one occasion, "The maintenance of peace and neutrality has been my constant concern, and I hope that with the co-operation of our sister nations of America we shall succeed in preserving the indispensable prosperity that will enable us to continue our cordial relations with other countries."

His democratic convictions were so strong and his concept of democracy so genuine that in his message to Congress in 1940 he felt constrained to say:

We have extended and strengthened, if I may say so, the processes of democratic government, because democracy is not only freedom of speech, freedom to go from one place to another, freedom of assembly. Democracy is all that, but it is also more than that. It is the possibility of improving one's station in life through one's own effort and personal merit. It is the opportunity, open to every man, to progress and improve his economic status and education. It is the facility, offered to even the most humble, to attain a higher and more dignified position.

In a statement given to the press by the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, he said in part:

I am deeply grieved to learn of the death of the President of Chile, His Excellency, Dr. Pedro Aguirre Cerda, and I am sure that his many friends in the United States sincerely share my feeling.

President Aguirre's aspirations to better the welfare of each individual of his nation and people and the program of progressive legislation which he forwarded have been greatly admired by the citizens, not only of Chile, but of the other American republics.

On learning of President Aguirre's death, the Director General of the Pan American Union, Dr. L. S. Rowe, issued the following statement:

The entire continent sympathizes with the people of Chile in the great loss which they have sustained. The passing of President Aguirre means an irreparable loss to Chile as well as to the other nations of America.

He was a great leader who labored untiringly for the cause of social betterment, and his example will be a constant stimulus to this as well as to future generations. Throughout his career, and especially during the period of his incumbency as President of Chile, he gave enthusiastic support to the policy of inter-American cooperation. He will ever be remembered for the high standards of both his domestic and his international policy.

The Pan American Union mourns with the people of Chile in this sad hour.

The eminent Chilean statesman and educator was born on an hacienda near Los Andes on February 6, 1879; he was therefore in his 63d year at the time of his death.

There was nothing ephemeral about the affection and respect in which he was held by his many friends, and history will reserve for him a place among the great men who have served their countries well.

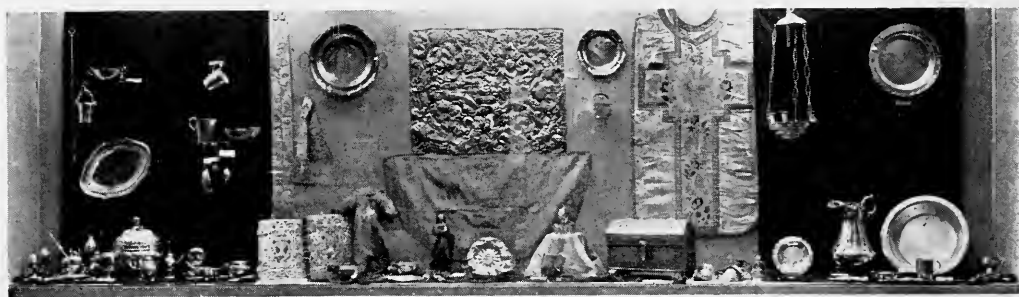


Exhibit of Latin American Silver at the Pan American Union

MRS. HUGH ALLISON GREENWOOD

OUTSTANDING examples from a little known field of the artistic past of our own continent were shown at the Pan American Union in a special loan exhibition of the work of the gold- and silversmiths of Latin America on view from October 14 to November 15, 1941. A majority of the modern geographic divisions were represented. No objects from the remaining Latin American countries or from southern and southwestern sections of the United States formerly under Spanish cultural influence were available when the exhibition was planned.

The pieces displayed were in large part generously lent from collections in the vicinity of Washington; some of them had never before been shown in the United States. They ranged from remote periods preceding the Incas and the Aztecs

through the sumptuous splendors of the years of the Spanish and Portuguese domination after the Conquest, the simpler days of the republics, the age of ornateness comparable to the Victorian and the ensuing decadence, down to the present and its revived or modern styles.

Chronological order was observed as far as possible in the arrangement of the nearly four hundred pieces, all of hand craftsmanship, that were exhibited. No pieces originating in Spain and Portugal were included in the showing.

Color was effectively introduced in the background by vestments, hangings of episcopal purple, scarves, and other textiles.

The exhibition grew out of an endeavor to bring Latin American gold and silver craftsmanship to the attention of people in the United States, thus aiding hemispheric understanding through the promotion of mutual appreciation. It is hoped that it was a source of inspiration for the study of the glowingly rich history of the Latin American countries and that it brought de-

The exhibition was planned and assembled by the author, an Honorary Associate of the Middle American Research Institute of the Tulane University of New Orleans, Louisiana, who lived for many years in Latin America and who is continuing an intensive study of the subject.

Full descriptions of the plates will be found at the end of the article.

signs and forms from their pre-Columbian as well as historic periods to the attention of artists. Many magnificent objects were viewed attentively by collectors other than their owners. Great interest was shown in the gallery talks given to special groups, and a permanent file of photographs of outstanding objects is contemplated.

In the archaeological material, largely

symbolic, simplicity of form and restraint in ornament in nearly all the pieces indicate an impressive degree of refinement and taste on the part of the craftsmen who made them. The United States National Museum sent from its treasures significant pieces of pre-Columbian silver from Peru. From the collection of archaeological gold and silver belonging to the Honorable and

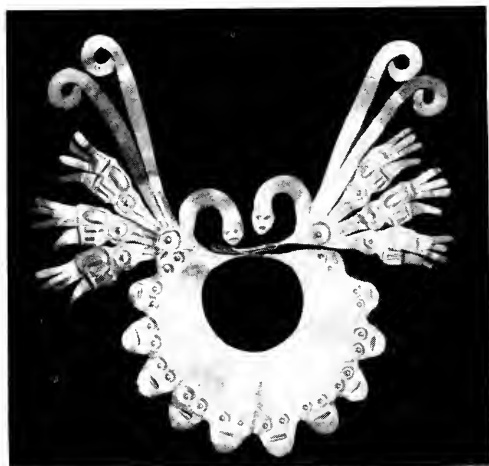
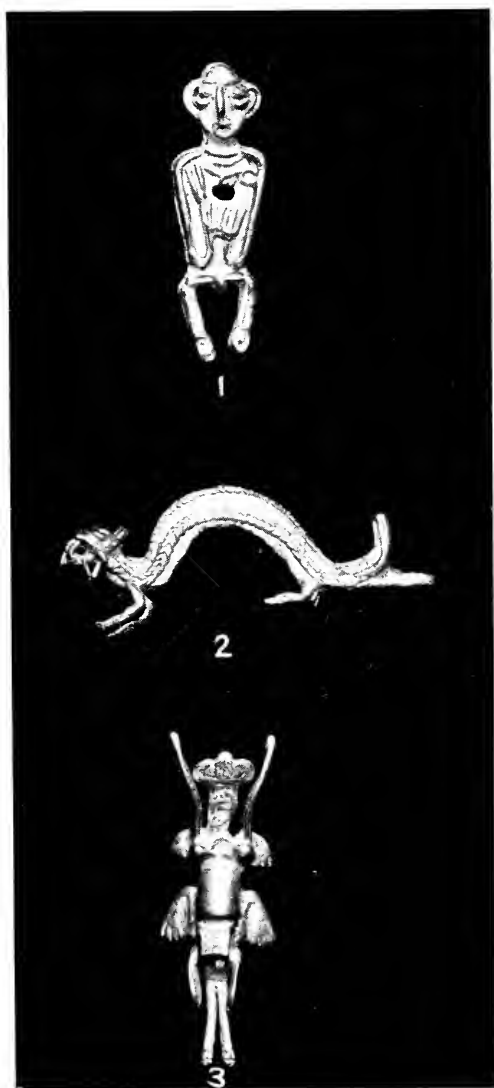


PLATE I.—ARCHAEOLOGICAL GOLD

Mrs. Robert Woods Bliss came many fine objects, including votive miniatures, from Peru and Colombia, here shown to the public for the first time. Those from Colombia included several exquisite examples of Quimbaya work and numerous fine Chibcha objects. Other gold pieces

on view (all from private collections) included three very good examples of Chiriquí work from David, in northern Panama, others of the Güetar culture from Costa Rica, and striking examples of rare Chimú and Nazca art from the coast of Peru. Six tiny silver objects found in mummy



PLATE II.—ARCHAEOLOGICAL OBJECTS



PLATE III.—COLONIAL SILVER

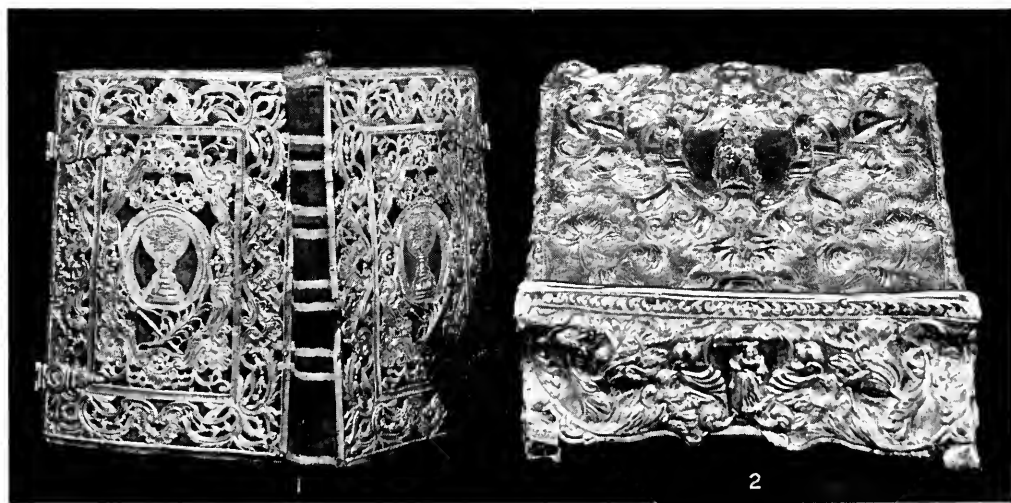


PLATE IV.—COLONIAL SILVER FROM QUITO

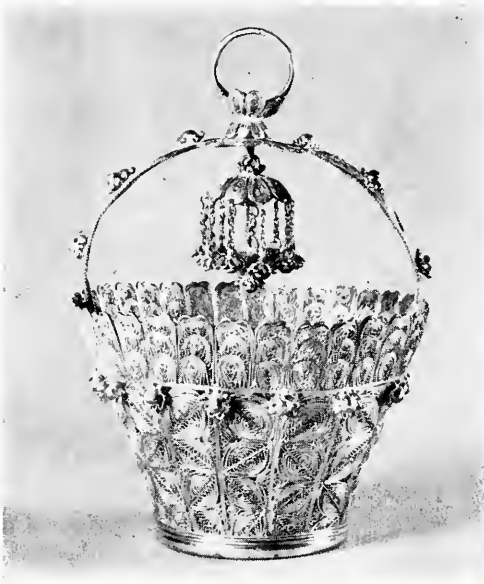


PLATE V.—FILIGREE BASKET

wrappings to provide symbolically for future needs had been exhibited at the New York World's Fair by the Peruvian Government. A silver mask from Ica and a small Chimú incense burner in the strongly stylized bird-and-fish pattern from ancient Peru (both belonging to Mr. and Mrs. Bliss), and a great gold nose, plaques and appliquéés from Bolivia, from another private collection, were all found in mummy wrappings.

From Monte Albán, Oaxaca, Mexico, a gold necklace of twenty-four pieces was shown, the two principle units being hummingbirds (*quindés*) holding in their mouths the Maya day-sign. The other twenty-two are embossed discs surrounded by tiny gold dots, with pendant bells of golden shells in a sort of fringe. Discovered many years ago in a superficial tomb, the parts had found their way to Europe, where in the course of time they were reassembled into this complete jewel of Toltec-Mixtec artistry.

Supplementing the gold and silver work,

several specimens of the amazing textiles found in burials of pre-Columbian peoples of Peru showed, in beautiful fresh colors, intricately stylized designs, and unsurpassed execution, the great mastery of weaving possessed by those ancient inhabitants of America.

These and many other examples of very early art and exceptionally fine craftsmanship were arranged in the first cases to show what skill and artistic feeling the first Europeans found among the indigenous peoples. It should be remembered with what primitive tools the artists of those peoples achieved their exquisite results.

Hispano-Indian fusion, based on the high artistic culture of the natives at the time of the Conquest by Cortés and Pizarro in the first part of the xvth century, and the characteristic styles of Spain, resulted in a creole art with forms that were often completely different and quite original. For even though examples remaining to us of the metal workers' art immediately



PLATE VI.—MATÉ CHEST

after the Conquest are often copies of European pieces crudely executed by Indians at their masters' orders, almost immediately one finds conventionalized native flora and fauna creeping subtly into the details of ornamentation, and soon openly applied to European forms and usages. Fascinating variations in folk art show how Indian silversmiths modified European instruction to accord with their own ideologies. At first the Spaniards were intolerant of native art, but there is evidence that soon the monks deliberately used indigenous elements as valuable aids in the propagation of the faith. And so we find that traditional forms and designs from the pre-Columbian era persisted and became a substantial part of the developing culture, blending with those of Catholicism to produce an interesting mestizo religious art, which in many remote towns and villages is still vigorous.

The Spanish colonial regime in America, which lasted approximately three hundred

years, was coeval with the culmination and decline of the Renaissance, which evolved naturally into the vigorous and vital Baroque. We find almost immediately the reflection of these styles in Latin American silver, Baroque being its grand style. During the latter part of this period Spanish silversmiths were markedly influenced by Italian and French styles as they had been previously by the German and Flemish, and by the work of the Dutch silversmiths who had gone to Spain under contract to the Crown. In 1778 the founding of the Royal Spanish Silver Works and the preponderant influence exerted upon it by the methods used at Sheffield, England, had a pronounced effect upon the craft in Spanish America, the style then greatly resembling that of New England, which likewise followed its mother country. It is true, of course, that the work of Indian craftsmen in America shows crudeness in comparison with examples of European silver, but the



PLATE VII.—EIGHTEENTH CENTURY MATÉ CUPS

writer finds truly interesting the pieces with ornaments derived from the flora and fauna of the New World.

It is to be remembered that silver was a metal convenient to handle and easily workable and, until the coming of the Spaniards, it had no particular intrinsic value, although gold and silver were considered more admirable for ceremonial insignia because of their lustrous beauty. There was a saying that in the making of the earth gold was the sweat thrown off by the sun and silver by the moon.

Silver abounded in the Americas, and we find great flat basins which were set over charcoal fires as frying pans, deep pots that were used for cooking stews, and other large deep bowls, with handles, for soups. There are also great long-handled spoons, some worn down from long years of stirring, and large ladles whose handles are often handsomely ornamented with crests and ornate

designs. A shape for a spoon or ladle, called *pilche* and used in traveling, developed in Ecuador and Colombia from a carved tagua (vegetable ivory) nut. A similar handleless spoon or drinking cup came from a coconut shell fitted with a silver rim to which was attached a chain ending in a hook to hang from the belt. Later there was a more elaborate type entirely of chased or repoussé silver, often bearing the coat of arms of the owner. Examples of such objects were displayed at the Pan American Union.

Most cups at first were of the same form as the English horn drinking cups and the basins and bowls were simple, developed largely from the early xvith century gourd or calabash shape. Handles were a much later addition.

The handles of the ewers, mugs, pitchers and basins shown in the exhibit were often most intriguing adaptations of the favorite dolphin, scaled serpent, seahorse, lizard,



PLATE VIII.—COLONIAL SILVER

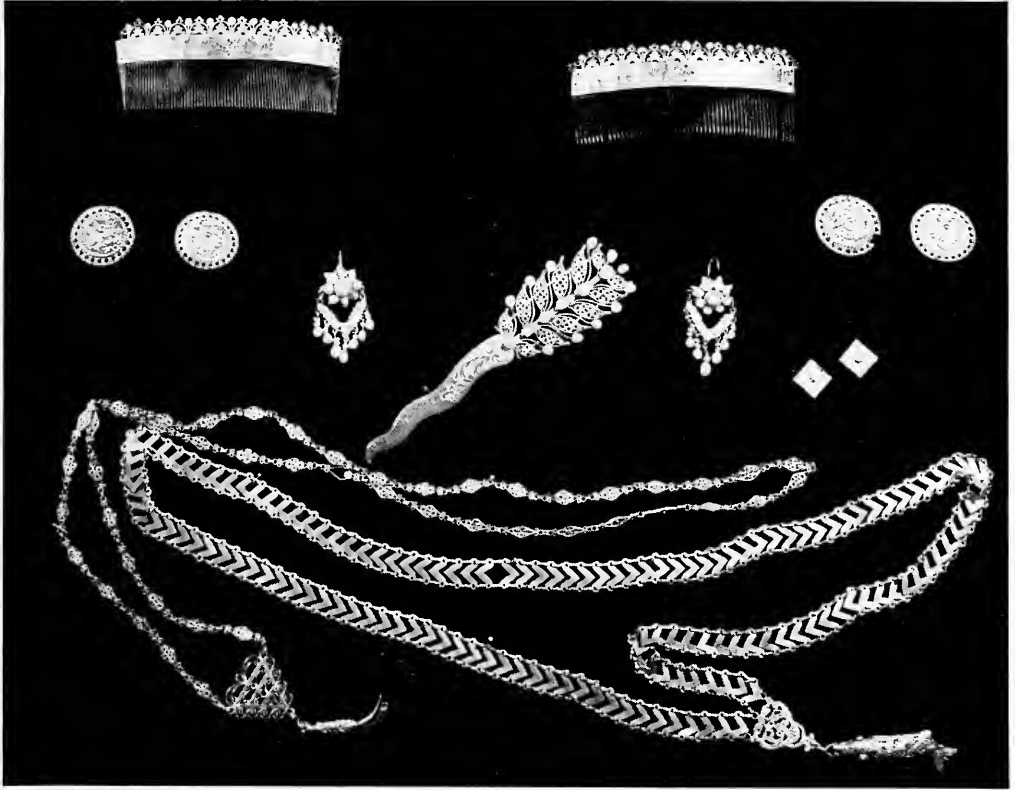


PLATE IX.—COLONIAL GOLD JEWELRY FROM PANAMA

monkey, and long-tailed bird forms ranging from those almost naturalistic in type to highly stylized forms. In connection with the maté cups and some of the sippers (*bombillas*) as well as incense burners (*sahumadores*) the Peruvian wild turkey (*paujil*) motif is found.

Striking colonial ecclesiastical silver, largely from Peru and Ecuador, was shown in the exhibit. Among these were half a heavy repoussé silver antependium, or frontal, of an altar from Lima, Peru, one of the finest examples of mestizo art in its blending of European scrolls and life-like flora and fauna of Peru (see plate, p. 18); also a fragment from an arch, once framing an altar, a large sacred picture or a chapel doorway, which makes delightful

use of the pomegranate motif and has a lace-like border suggesting the Moorish influence in Spain; and a similar strip from an altar, all three from the collection of Mr. and Mrs. Bliss. There was also, from a private collection, a hanging lamp with three plainly wrought flat-link chains, the crown and bowl being in simple harmony; three candle sockets on the rim of the bowl are likewise reminiscent of Moorish Spain in shape and ornament.

Of interest was a massive chest of cast silver for regalia or religious jewels bearing on a streamer attached to the coat of arms on its lid the inscription "Ciudad de Lima, 1780" (City of Lima, 1780). Mingling with the double-headed eagle of Charles V of Spain in the ornamentation



PLATE X.—ARAUCANIAN SILVER ORNAMENTS

are palm trees, wild turkeys and other Peruvian elements.

A prayer book cover in massive silver filigree also came from Lima.

A holy water basin from the same city is of fine workmanship, and has as a center ornament a stylized sun with its rays, a blending of the old worship with the new.

Both of these pieces were from the collection of the late Marie D. Gorgas.

Some most interesting colonial jewelry, also from private collections, was made in Panama and Venezuela of river gold in various hues. There were many pieces of exquisite filigree set with unpolished pearls, some large and irregular, from the Pearl

Islands in the Pacific Ocean, off the coast of Panama. Among the pieces were rosaries, crosses, lace-like pendants, scapular medals, earrings, brooches, tortoiseshell combs, and hair ornaments. Of the beautiful chains, two were the *cadenas chatas* of Panama, with flexible fish pendants amazingly wrought. Sixteen of the pieces constitute the set worn with the national costume of Panama, *La Pollera*.

Native shawl pins in chased designs on cast forms, sun *topos* from Ecuador in use from pre-Columbian days, and the spoon pin from Bolivia, a form introduced by the Spaniards, are still worn.

Salvers, candelabra, platters, serving-dishes, candlesticks, plates and soup dishes, bowls, mugs, cups, basins and ewers for bedroom and for finger-washing at table,

spoons, and forks parallel the development of the silversmith's art in Europe but have fascinating mestizo touches.

The vitalizing influence of commerce from the Orient to the colonies can readily be noted; after the arrival of porcelain tea-bowls from China the use of the ring-base developed in silver, cups and bowls previously having been flat-bottomed. However, the cup-with-handle shape was not used for tea; instead such cups, filled with sweetmeats, graced the board at the feasts of the wealthy.

The pedestal form of foot is a later influence from Europe.

The bowl called *totuma* or *tembladera*, which developed from the gourd to a perfectly hemispherical shape, later acquired scroll-like handles; it is still often



PLATE XI.—MODERN TEA SERVICE

used to offer incense to the Virgin and the Saints, and coins may be strung from one handle to the other.

Shown in the exhibit was a great melon-shaped dish in repoussé silver from Bogotá, Colombia. Its well-designed cast handles were soldered on, and most curious cast masks and other nineteenth century ornaments added much later. (Collection of Mr. H. Perry Macgowan.)

Magnificent trappings—spurs, stirrups, bridles, saddle-mountings—hat ornaments, and other objects for horse and rider, either in silver or in leather adorned with silver, were to be found in nearly all the Latin American countries, and still are used in some of them. A pleasing piece exhibited was the dainty sandal stirrup in cast silver for a woman's use. This came from colonial Peru.

One of two well-designed colonial candle snuffers in cast and chased silver came from Quito, the other from Bogotá.

Much of the silver from colonial and early republican days has a sheen like a fine moonstone. Its soft glow gives it the name of *plata de piña*, pineapple silver, and pieces made of it are especially treasured.

Admirable work of the contemporary silversmith is to be found in a number of the Latin American countries, pieces for table use, decoration, and jewelry having been exhibited from Argentina, Bolivia,

Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Haiti, Mexico (notably Ortega's shop in Mexico City and the craft center under William Spratling in Taxco), Panama and Peru. From Quito came several good examples of the true Sheffield plate technique in colonial designs and forms. One tea-service from Mexico in an English style (not illustrated) had very simple lines and was highly burnished, without ornament.

There was jewelry, of both gold and silver, in chiseled castings and lovely filigree, some of it presented in past years by the Mexican Government to the Pan American Union. Other pieces from Bolivia, Colombia, Haiti, and Peru attracted eager attention. The jewelry was shown on seagreen stuff which enhanced the effect. Ancient indigenous designs were adapted quite admirably, although occasionally with a noticeably self-conscious effect which does not appear in the older pieces.

In the case of modern objects was shown a recent book in two handsome volumes, *The Art of the Silversmith in Mexico*, by L. L. Anderson, published by the Oxford University Press and illustrated with many plates, which serves admirably as a source of information for the collector, historian, and artist and for those just becoming interested in this aspect of the culture of Latin America.

Description of Plates

PLATE I.—ARCHAEOLOGICAL GOLD

LEFT: Pre-Columbian objects from Colombia lent by the Honorable and Mrs. Robert Woods Bliss.

1. Cast male figure, seated, with typical raised wire outlines; *cire perdue* method; Chibcha.
2. Votive figure of a pouncing puma; head in fine detail and highly burnished, the body outlined by a braided design; *cire perdue* method; Chibcha.
3. Gold ceremonial breast-ornament, cast and highly burnished, one animal swallowing another; Quimbaya.

RIGHT: Pre-Columbian objects from Peru lent from another private collection.

UPPER: Gold ornament for mummy wrappings, a mouth-mask in heavy sheet gold in incised and repoussé work, from the Nazca culture. The plate is edged with scallops, each containing the face of a

puma with a protruding tongue symbolizing the god of war, and is surmounted by silhouettes of birds and by feathers, the end of each frond also ornamented with the puma face.

LOWER: Exquisite, complex head ornament, late Chimú gold work with red patina, design in incised and repoussé work, showing the face of a puma, surrounded by long, curving feathers, each frond terminated by a symbolic puma-face. The long quill is here thrust into a head-band or diadem in pseudo-tapestry of wool and cotton, on cotton.

PLATE II.—ARCHAEOLOGICAL OBJECTS

1. A bronze ceremonial staff-head in the shape of a cormorant superbly modeled with the tail resembling an adze blade or a *tumi*, the wings inlaid with strips of copper and silver.

2. A scraper or *tumi* for ceremonial use, with cylindrical handle inlaid with minute stylized llama figures, dots and bands in copper and silver and terminating in a llama head. Both objects belong to the Late Chimú culture, coast of northern Peru, and show a strong Tiahuanaco influence, brought in by the Incas.

3. Appliqué ornament, a bird with spread wings, in pale gold, naturalistic design, formerly in the Gaffron collection; northern coast of Peru.

4. Necklace of 14 medallions in gold repoussé work in stylized puma-head design, punched with tiny holes for stringing; this has the matchless red patina of the Late Chimú gold.

5. Copper *tumi* from Peru, handle surmounted by human figure in ceremonial headdress, holding a *tumi* in each hand (not exhibited).

6. Copper knife or scraper from Peru, surmounted by monkey handle with long curling tail (not exhibited).

All the above-mentioned pieces belong to the collection of the Hon. and Mrs. Robert Woods Bliss.

PLATE III.—COLONIAL SILVER

1. Plaque for a tabernacle door in a well-balanced example of mestizo baroque repoussé and chiseled work, with symbols of the Eucharist; a cast figure of the Virgin with a lamb is riveted at lower center. Provenience: near Paccha, southwestern Ecuador.

2. Crown in chiseled and repoussé work, with a cast cross surmounting the arcs; from a carved image in Quito, Ecuador.

3. A holy-water basin, with a border of scallop shells centered with a stylized rose, bears on the reverse an old Spanish inscription showing it to be a gift accompanying a petition or *demanda* to Our Lady in 1799. Provenience: Quito, Ecuador.

4. A charming incense burner (*sahumador*) in the form of a hinged pomegranate rising on a slender stem from a beautifully wrought tray with delicate feet shows the Moorish influence which crossed the sea with the conquistadors and their successors. Provenience: Lima, Peru. Collection of the late Marie D. Gorgas.

5. Tiny plain, burnished, well-modeled silver ewer with lid, used for the oil of extreme unction by a village priest near Paccha, southwestern Ecuador.

6. A small oval alms-basin with a delicate indented scroll edge bears on the reverse an appeal to the favorite saint in the village chapel of Conocoto, which is dated 1711, the quaint long-lettered script of the petition being signed and sealed with the rubric of the giver. Provenience: Quito, Ecuador.

Nos. 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 were lent from another private collection.

PLATE IV.—COLONIAL SILVER FROM QUITO

1. A missal cover in an elaborate chiseled open-work silver appliqué on red velvet. Collection of the late Daniel Stapleton.

2. A stand for the Gospels, in richly wrought repoussé silver mounted on wood, attention focusing on a cast and chiseled figure in green gold in the center. Collection of the late Daniel Stapleton.

PLATE V.—FILIGREE BASKET

From colonial Lima came this exquisite basket (*mixtureira*) in massive silver filigree with a delicate pendant of flowers hanging from the top of the handle. In this young girls carried aromatic flower petals to strew or to toss down from the balcony before the sacred images in the great religious processions; at home the

basket held lavender to perfume the wardrobes. Collection of the Honorable and Mrs. Robert Woods Bliss.

PLATE VI.—MATÉ CHEST

A magnificent oval chest for maté, entirely of heavy silver, is surmounted by a pear rising out of a bed of leaves. The ribbed bowl, in a marked Italianate style, stands amusingly on three hooved feet, topped by shaggy manes, thus realistically commemorating the beloved horses of Argentina. Collection of the Honorable and Mrs. Robert Woods Bliss.

PLATE VII.—EIGHTEENTH CENTURY MATÉ CUPS

1. Etched gourd, mounted in silver on a silver plate, and with silver sipper (*bombilla*) decorated with turkeys. Provenience: Argentina.

2. Carved coconut shell, in low relief, highly polished, and mounted in brilliant gold, with gold sipper having strainer-base of heavy silver wire. Provenience: Argentina.

3. Gourd, mounted in silver, lid attached by chain, simple riveted mount on three feet. Provenience: Northern Paraguay.

4. One of the most exquisite maté cups known, entirely of silver elaborately wrought. The spherical chased bowl has cast handles in the shape of long-tailed birds. It rests on the raised heads of waterfowl poised on three polished balls, which stand on the corners of a triangular base, riveted on a beautifully made plate having three delicately cast feet. Provenience: Argentina.

All from the collection of the Hon. and Mrs. Robert Woods Bliss.

PLATE VIII.—COLONIAL SILVER

1. Barber's basin, like that erroneously taken for the helmet of Mambrino by Don Quixote when he started out on his fantastic adventures; heavy silver, finely wrought, very early colonial. Provenience: south of Loja, Ecuador. Lent from a private collection (with Nos. 3, 4, 5, 7, and 8).

2. Deep circular basin with triple line petal-edge in fine workmanship; cast handles in stylized dolphin forms, added later. Initials in center may be recent. Provenience: Bolivia. Lent from another private collection.

3. Mug with bottom, elaborately modeled dolphin handle, and heavy incised rim all soldered on; broad chased band in floral patterns adds to the mestizo effect. Provenience: Quito, Ecuador.

4. *Tembladera*, or bowl, with ring base and stylized serpent-scroll handles; for sweetmeats. Provenience: Quito, Ecuador.

5. Tiny mug, with incised naturalistic band, and delicate scroll handle, bottom and handle soldered on; this had been used as a chalice by the village priest when he traveled to distant haciendas. Provenience: south of Loja, Ecuador.

6. Vase or pitcher on pedestal-base, finely moulded, with double scroll handles of stylized dolphins. Provenience: Bogotá, Colombia. Collection of Mr. H. Perry Macgowan.

7. *Tembladera*, with flat bottom, and dolphin-scroll handles, sometimes used for incense in religious ceremonies. Provenience: Quito, Ecuador.

8. Highly burnished mug, bottom and stylized sea-horse handle soldered on; fine, plain shape. Provenience: near Colombian border, Andean Ecuador.

PLATE IX.—COLONIAL GOLD JEWELRY FROM PANAMA

This jewelry of river gold and unpolished pearls is for use with the national costume *La Pollera*. Combs of tortoise-shell, ornamented with beautiful scrolls of pearl-set gold; pearl-set earrings; a dagger hair ornament with a chased design and pearls; patches (*lunetes*) to wear on the forehead; four heavily wrought buttons to fasten the skirt; a *cadena chata* with a flexible fish pendant, the scales exquisitely executed; another chain of delicate links, with fish pendant, formed of two cast halves, one ending in a tooth-pick, the other in an ear-spoon. (The *chata* is the small shallow dugout canoe used by the Indians; the indentations show the tiny ripples of shallow water.) A link chain with cross, scapulary medals, and rosary is always used, if owned. From a private collection.

PLATE X.—ARAUCANIAN SILVER ORNAMENTS

This magnificent collection was presented some time ago by the Chilean Government to the Pan American Union. The spherical dagger-pin with cylindrical-bead chain more than two feet long, ending in cone-shaped clapperless bells and having crosses and a tiny human effigy attached near the head, attracted especial attention. Note also the huge earrings, great pendant breast-plates sometimes worn on nail-studded leather collar-bands and the chains of discs imitating coins. The style evolved shortly after the Conquest among the unconquered Araucanian Indians of southern Chile and still persists.

PLATE XI.—MODERN TEA SERVICE

Modern tea service of heavy silver, English in form, elaborate with melon-ribbing and striking chased ornamentation, by Ortega of Mexico City. Courtesy of Mme. Roberto Córdova.



Women of the Americas

IV. Marta Abreu, Cuba

ELENA MEDEROS DE GONZÁLEZ

Delegate of Cuba, Inter-American Commission of Women

IN THE RECORDS of Cuba's struggle for independence figure countless women who were conspicuous for their acts of heroism. In their zeal to aid fathers, husbands, or sons in the crusade for freedom, they frequently surpassed them in fearlessness, daring, and patriotic action. There were many women, too, whose fine sensibilities impelled them to engage in charitable works of great importance or to make large bequests to religious institutions.

What distinguishes Marta Abreu above many others is the magnitude of the enterprises she undertook and carried out and the profound social feeling that motivated her public acts as both patriot and philanthropist. Her concern for the collective welfare and her broad humanity permitted her to rise above the most deeply rooted prejudices of her era and achieve results that would have been exceptional even for men at that time.

Marta Abreu was born in Santa Clara, a little city that lies among the hills in the mountainous region of central Cuba. The inhabitants are characterized by their intense love for their own town. Perhaps that is why this extraordinary woman showered her greatest benefactions on her birthplace. There she passed her childhood and youth, and with her brothers and

sisters, in an atmosphere of comfortable wealth, she received a careful education.

Marta's mother is known and remembered for her great generosity, and it is recalled that she often used to say, in tones of heartfelt sadness, "I should bequeath something to my country if only there were any guarantee that it would be properly used."

In 1895, when Marta was nearly thirty years old, she married Luis Estévez Romero, a distinguished professor of law at the University of Habana and later First Vice-President of the Republic of Cuba. He was a man of integrity and sensibility, who understood and knew how to guide Marta's plans although he remained in the background of her activities, inasmuch as it was her own money that was being spent. To the sympathetic understanding that Marta always found in her husband may be attributed in great part the fulfillment of her ideas. They had one son, whose education was later placed in charge of Carlos de la Torre, the most distinguished Cuban naturalist of that day.

Before her marriage Marta, together with her sisters, Rosa and Rosalia, who were always in full accord with her ideas, had already embarked on a series of benefactions in their native city. The first of these was the establishment of a free boarding school for boys, which was almost immediately enlarged and followed by a similar school for girls.

The problem of education was thus the first that touched her sympathies. Later

This is the fourth of the series on "Women of the Americas" that the BULLETIN is publishing in fulfillment of a resolution passed by the Eighth International Conference of American States. Biographies of Policarpa Salavarrieta (Colombia), Juana Manso de Noronha (Argentina), and Maria Francisca Reyes (Honduras) appeared in the issues for October 1939, December 1939, and July 1940, respectively.

the trend of her beneficence showed that her interests were broadening and that her generous and impressionable soul was responding to human problems with a deepening comprehension and a full knowledge of the special difficulties of her times.

Thus we see her establishing the Asylum of San Pedro and Santa Rosalía, where whole families could find free shelter without being separated from each other until they could improve their condition. If that could not be done because of old age or some other reason, the needy could remain there indefinitely, receiving medical attention and their maintenance. Eager, also, to provide a means of support for the Asylum, she decided to construct a theater, *La Caridad*, the profits of which would always be devoted to the Asylum. The cost of the edifice was more than 150,000 pesos.

Then Marta founded a school for colored children—children who at that time did not dare attend the government schools. She valiantly maintained that differences of color exist not in the skin but in the soul.

Observing the obstacles that confronted poor women in doing their washing, she planned the establishment of public laundries at convenient locations in various parts of the city, and seeing the difficulties that certain country people experienced in transporting their products to the city, she had constructed, at her own expense, a bridge and a road to remedy the situation.

Her activities in connection with jails, hospitals, dispensaries, and the public library were innumerable; even the establishment of the Astronomical and Meteorological Observatory was due to her initiative, as well as the installation of electricity in Santa Clara. Thus we see that Marta Abreu was ever alert and determined to find satisfactory solutions to whatever problems of education, public

health, and social improvement came to her knowledge.

Wealthy by inheritance, she nevertheless had a deep feeling that her riches did not signify an opportunity for personal enjoyment, but rather that they imposed on her a great responsibility to serve the collective welfare.

In the year 1895 the revolutionary movement was again brewing, not in sporadic outbreaks engineered by isolated heroes, as had been happening since the Peace of Zanjón in 1878, but in the form of coordinated movements that required more ample resources and collective machinery. José Martí was traveling through the nations of America seeking aid for the last of the American republics that was fighting to attain its liberty from an Old World power. Everywhere he left behind him organized revolutionary juntas that recruited men and means for the struggle.

Cubans of strong political sentiments were either withdrawing into fastnesses or emigrating. Marta went to Paris, the home of her sister Rosa, who had married Dr. Grancher, a Frenchman. There Marta was the center of the Cuban movement; she was posted on events in Spain and kept in contact with the insurgents.

Her correspondence with Estrada Palma, head of the Cuban revolutionary junta and later first President of the Republic, contains a great deal of human as well as historic interest. Not only the vigorous personalities of both but also their constant desire to serve their country are unmistakably evident in their letters.

When someone once rather officiously told Marta that she was spending too much money on her country, she answered vehemently: "My last peseta is for the Republic, and if more is needed when my money is gone, I will sell my land; if that is not enough, I will sell my jewels; and if all that is still too little, we ourselves will beg in

the streets and we should still be happy because we should be doing it for the liberty of Cuba!"

The exact amount of Marta's donations cannot readily be determined because of the secrecy with which she made many of them, but it is certain that they exceeded several hundred thousand pesos. Another characteristic of her gifts was their opportuneness; she never delayed in making them but took special pains that they should arrive when the need was felt. Never was this more apparent than at the time of the death of General Antonio Maceo, which was a heavy blow to the revolutionary movement and which, it was feared, might paralyze all later action. As soon as the news of his death reached her, Marta cabled Estrada Palma: "Tell me if the sad news is true. Count on 10,000 pesos. Forward!" At the same time she started a campaign for subscriptions, which she headed with 30,000 pesos, in order to send the largest possible amount. The collection exceeded 100,000 pesos.

Her lofty sense of patriotism kept her aloof from the series of petty intrigues that always materialize in any undertaking of magnitude. Faced with them her words and acts were always conducive to peace and union. "Men and their faults pass; we must refrain from giving importance to their meannesses, in order to achieve, as achieve we shall, the final triumph of our cause."

It was just and logical, then, that the chiefs of the Revolution should have recognized Marta as an incomparable companion in their struggle. The words of the Chief of the Liberating Army, Máximo Gomez, a forceful man little given to flattery, plainly show that feeling. "If the Liberating Army were to deliberate what rank should be given to such a generous woman, I venture to say that there would be no hesitancy in bestowing

upon her the same rank as my own."

In spite of her exalted patriotism, she knew how to be magnanimous to the conquered. When at the end of the war a Spanish association in Santa Clara was dispossessed of its building, she gave one of her own houses to be used as headquarters until the organization could find another place.

Her affability and courtesy charmed all who knew her. Her democratic spirit and her austere simplicity caused her to refuse the title of nobility offered her in her youth by Spain in recognition of her good works in Santa Clara.

When the war ended Marta and her husband returned to Cuba, where he was Secretary of Justice during the period of American intervention. It is interesting to point out here that both in his official capacity and in his writings, Luis Estévez advocated women's rights, such as the introduction of divorce, suppression of the family council,¹ the right to make wills, and other measures tending toward legal and social equality for women.

After the Republic was established and Marta's husband elected Vice President, she occupied a place of responsibility at his side. When the difficulties arose that later led to the Revolution of August 1905, their valorous attitude was irreproachable. Unfortunately the views of the able Vice President were not followed and no way was left open to him except to resign.

Disillusioned and saddened by the turn of events, although in no wise losing interest in the social institutions they had endowed or in the fate of the young Republic, they returned to Paris to stay. There, on January 2, 1908, Marta died from the effects of an appendectomy.

Her death, coupled with that of Luis

¹ In Cuban civil law, a group of persons, named in a will or appointed by law, and charged with the guardianship of a minor and the administration of his estate.

Estévez who, unable to endure the solitude of his widowerhood, passed away soon thereafter, caused profound grief in Cuba. Their country had received from them both that intelligent and unselfish devotion which was a fundamental factor in the creation of the Republic and in the guidance of its first difficult steps as a democracy.

By popular subscription a monument to Marta Abreu was erected in Santa Clara, commemorating the most significant aspects of her life. La Caridad Theater continues to perpetuate her work. Both her name and that of her husband live on, deeply venerated by their compatriots because of their good works and their association with Cuban independence.

Calling All Broadcasters

Personal Names, Spanish Style

DOROTHY M. TERCERO

Editorial Division

"WHAT'S in a name?" sighed Juliet Capulet as she sat on her moonlit balcony dreaming of Romeo, surnamed Montague—which to a Capulet was synonymous with "enemy." To her own mind's satisfaction Juliet answered her musings by the simple statement, "That which we call a rose, by any other name would smell as sweet."

There can be little or no quarrel with Juliet's reasoning, but at the same time the question of names and what is in them cannot always be so easily disposed of, especially if the name happens to be a Spanish one. The construction of Spanish personal names is such that even the initiated are sometimes slightly confused, so it is small wonder that the complexity of compound surnames, the difficulties of distinguishing between forenames and surnames, and the prefixes that frequently embellish both given and family names lead the uninitiated into confusion worse confounded.

Webster's New International Dictionary

defines a name as "the title by which any person or thing is known or designated; a distinctive specific appellation, whether of an individual or a class," and a proper name "denotes any individual without necessarily saying anything of character." The earliest forms of names were single words by which one individual was distinguished from others in his group. Then as populations and communication among them increased, it became convenient and even necessary to distinguish individuals more fully, and second names began to be added to the single ones.

In Spain three definite types of second names gradually developed: patronymics, which at first were only father-to-son or possibly grandfather-to-grandson arrangements but which later began to be assumed and retained by all members of a family without change; names that described or identified some outstanding quality or characteristic of the individuals to whom they were applied; and names indicative of an estate, place of residence, or territory

of origin. Many of the patronymic surnames were very common, and to distinguish himself from others of the same name, a man often added to the patronymic the name of his estate, residence, or birthplace, or possibly his nickname. This was the beginning of compound names, many of which became permanent as a unit and were passed on through succeeding generations of the same family. The only connotation of the frequent prefixes—or specifically, the use of the particle “de” with or without the definite article, found in both forenames and surnames—was that of the ordinary preposition “of” before a geographical, descriptive, or other definite place name.

Present-day Spanish name customs can perhaps be most quickly and clearly explained by taking a few concrete examples to serve as a guide. What, for instance, is the surname of the President of Mexico, General Manuel Ávila Camacho? Is it proper to call him President Camacho? (One august metropolitan daily recently had him headlined as “Comacho”, but that can perhaps be forgiven as just one of those things that happen now and then in even the best of newspapers.) Is it correct to refer to Rafael A. Calderón Guardia, President of Costa Rica, as President Guardia, or is his surname Calderón? If one wants to look up material on the Mexican artist, Roberto de la Cueva y del Río, or the writings of the eminent Cuban lawyer, Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante y Sirvén, what letter of the alphabet does one approach? In the salutation of a letter to the Colombian educator, writer, and diplomat, Daniel Samper Ortega, would one address him as “Dear Dr. Ortega,” “Dear Dr. Samper,” or would it perhaps be best to take refuge in the more ambiguous but safer “My dear Doctor”?

If a person uses but two names, as do

Lázaro Cárdenas and Jorge Basadre, no questions arise, for the first is of course the given or baptismal name and the second the surname inherited from the father, as is the custom in English-speaking countries. Baptismal names are reasonably easy to recognize, as they are usually chosen from the church’s list of saints or from some well known historical personage, and although a child may be given several names at baptism, he seldom uses more than two in later life. Some difficulty in distinguishing forenames might come from the fact that a few of them also occur as surnames, such as León, César, or Alfonso; and there are still others, formed with the particle “de” and the definite article, like Juan de la Cruz or María del Pilar, wherein the second part might possibly be mistaken for the prefix type of surname. However, more often than not, there will be little uncertainty in distinguishing given names.

The most common form of compound surname is the one composed of the surname of the father plus the maiden surname of the mother. These may be written as two separate names, they may be joined by *y* (and) or by a hyphen, or the second part (the mother’s maiden surname) may be designated simply by its initial letter. In the following examples, with the surname in each case printed in italics for emphasis, this system of name formation is more or less self-explanatory:

Enrique *Ruiz Guñazú* (son of Luis María *Ruiz de Grijalba* and Dolores *Guñazú*).

Rafael *Aguilar y Santillán* (son of Bruno *Aguilar y Orendáin* and Concepción *Santillán*).

Carlos *García-Prada* (son of Pompilio *García y Patiño* and Clementina *Prada y Ordóñez*).

Francisco Antonio *Rísquez A.* (son of Jesús María *Rísquez* and Fernanda *Alfonso*).

Thus it is demonstrated that as a general rule the first part of a compound surname is inherited directly from the father (who in turn inherited it from his father), and the second part is inherited directly from the mother (who likewise in turn inherited it from her father). In other words, the father's paternal surname is the true family name and if only one surname is used, it is always the father's, but the additional use of the mother's paternal surname is a generally recognized practice among all Spanish-speaking people.

Of course, like all rules, this one has its exceptions. It sometimes happens that a compound name (usually of historical or literary interest) is inherited intact from the father and the mother's maiden surname is not used, as in *Martín Gómez Palacio* (son of *Martín Gómez Palacio* and *Sara Ybarra*). Also, three or even four surnames are sometimes used, which may be inherited in compound form from either or both father and mother. The following are examples of this type of name formation:

Luis Rodríguez-Embil y Urioste (son of *Manuel Rodríguez-Embil* and *Clara Urioste*).

Francisco Monterde García Icazbalceta (son of *Francisco Monterde y Adalid* and *Dolores García Icazbalceta*).

Manuel Márquez Sterling y Loret de Mola (son of *Manuel Márquez Sterling* and *Belén Loret de Mola*).

All of the names given above as examples have been masculine. The names of unmarried women follow exactly the same method of formation. The custom regarding the names of married women, however, requires a few words of its own. It has been approximately a century since Lucy Stone began advocating in the United States that women should retain their own names after marriage, instead of losing their personal identities in their husbands' names. Except among women

who before marriage have already become well known in their chosen business or profession, Lucy Stone's idea has not found wide acceptance, and even the married women who still use their maiden names in public life almost unanimously like to be known as Mrs. So-and-so in their private lives.

In Spain and her colonies, however, for hundreds of years before the time of Lucy Stone, women did not change their names when they married. In Havelock Ellis's discussion of the women of Spain in Chapter III of *The Soul of Spain*, he wrote: "Even in the fourth century Spanish women insisted on retaining their own names after marriage, for we find the Synod of Elvira trying to limit this freedom . . ." It was in the year 305 or 306 A. D. that the nineteen bishops and twenty-four presbyters from all over Spain, who composed the Synod of Elvira to which Ellis refers, felt it incumbent upon them, as part of their general program of restoring order and discipline among the people, to devote some of their time to the question of women's names after marriage. More than 1,500 years elapsed, however, before, at more or less the same time Miss Stone began propounding the idea of the retention of maiden names in the United States, Spanish-speaking women began generally to assume their husbands' names. The usual method is for a wife to drop her mother's maiden surname and to use her own forename and father's surname, followed by *de* (of) and her husband's surname; or she may drop her maiden name entirely, using her own given name with *de* and her husband's surname. Thus, *María González y Gallardo*, who is married to *José Escobar*, may choose to be called *María González de Escobar*, or simply *María de Escobar*; and, sifting the name down to what she would actually be called by those who do not know her well

enough to address her by her baptismal name, she becomes Señora de Escobar. If her husband dies, she will then be known as María González viuda de Escobar (widow of Escobar).

It is an unfortunate fact, particularly from the research worker's or student's point of view, that all library catalogues and indexes, bibliographies, encyclopedias, and other reference works do not follow a consistent uniform method of indexing Spanish names. Compound and prefix names are the victims of several varying practices. Sometimes a person is listed under the first part of a compound surname and sometimes under the second part. Prefixes present an even more diverse picture, as some indexing practices postpone the entire prefix, others enter a name under the article but not the preposition, and still others, if preposition and article are combined in one word, as in *del*, make the entry under the combined prefix.

In a thorough and carefully documented study on Spanish personal names,¹ written for the practical purpose of helping cataloguers and bibliographers to solve their indexing problems, Charles F. Gosnell, of Queens College Library, New York, took up these questions and attempted to work out a standard guide. His investigations and conclusions simmer down into a suggestion for a short and simple rule by which Spanish name entries would be

made under the first part that is definitely identifiable as *not* a given or baptismal name and by which all prefixes would be postponed—plus an adequate number of cross-references under all other parts of the name. This, however, was merely a suggestion on Mr. Gosnell's part, and the general adoption of such a uniform method is probably still remote.

With the rather numerous foregoing models as a background, the reader can now undoubtedly solve the hypothetical name puzzles set forth at the beginning of this article. He will know, for example, that in Mexico and Costa Rica the Presidents, who use both paternal and maternal surnames, are Ávila Camacho and Calderón Guardia, respectively, and never should they be referred to by their maternal surnames alone. It should be plain, too, that Daniel Samper Ortega should be addressed as Dr. Samper or Dr. Samper Ortega, but not merely as Dr. Ortega. As for finding Roberto de la Cueva y del Río and Antonio Sánchez de Bustamante y Sirvén in a catalogue or reference index, the lamentable diversity of indexing practices must be remembered, and if they do not appear, as they logically should, under *Cueva* and *Sánchez de Bustamante*, all the other parts of the names can be tried at one's leisure. Researchers may take heart from the certain knowledge that after all the letters of the alphabet are limited in number, and eventually the desired names will appear somewhere along the way.

¹ Charles F. Gosnell, "Spanish Personal Names," *The H. W. Wilson Company, New York, 1938*.

The Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

AT the suggestion of Chile and the United States the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics will be held in January at Rio de Janeiro, that city having been chosen as the seat of the Third Meeting by the Second, which took place at Habana in July 1940. January 15 has been chosen as the day for the opening session.

The following communications explain the reason for the Meeting:

CABLEGRAM FROM THE MINISTER OF FOREIGN
AFFAIRS OF CHILE

[Translation]

DECEMBER 9, 1941

TO the CHAIRMAN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD OF
THE PAN AMERICAN UNION,
Washington, D. C.

In view of the unjustified aggression against the United States by a non-American power and pursuant to Resolutions 15 and 17 adopted by the Habana Meeting of Consultation in July 1940, I beg to request Your Excellency to consult with the other American Governments on the advisability of convoking a Third Meeting of Consultation of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics in order to consider the situation that has arisen and to adopt suitable measures required by the solidarity of our nations and the defense of the hemisphere. I take advantage of this opportunity to reiterate to Your Excellency the assurances of my highest and most distinguished consideration.

(Signed) JUAN B. ROSSETTI
Minister of Foreign Affairs of Chile

MEMORANDUM PRESENTED BY THE GOVERNMENT
OF THE UNITED STATES TO THE FOREIGN MINISTERS
OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS. COPY SENT TO
THE PAN AMERICAN UNION DECEMBER 10, 1941

The American Republics, at the Inter-American Conferences held in Buenos Aires, Lima, Panama,

and Habana, have jointly recognized that a threat to the peace, security, or territorial integrity of any American Republic is of common concern to all.

In the Fifteenth Resolution adopted by the American Republics at the Consultative Meeting held in Habana in July of 1940, and entitled "Reciprocal Assistance and Cooperation for the Defense of the Nations of the Americas," the American Republics declared that "any attempt on the part of a non-American state against the integrity or inviolability of the territory, the sovereignty, or the political independence of an American state shall be considered as an act of aggression against the states which signed this declaration," and further declared that in case such acts of aggression are committed against an American state by a non-American nation "the nations signatory to the present declaration will consult among themselves in order to agree upon the measures it may be advisable to take."

On December 7, 1941, without warning or notice, and during the course of negotiations entered into in good faith by the Government of the United States for the purpose of maintaining peace, territory of the United States was treacherously attacked by armed forces of the Japanese Empire.

The course of events since the outbreak of war in Europe in 1939 clearly demonstrates that the fate of every free and peace-loving nation of the world hinges upon the outcome of the present struggle against the ruthless efforts of certain Powers, including the Japanese Empire, to dominate the entire earth by the sword.

The wave of aggression has now broken upon the shores of the New World.

In this situation that menaces the peace, the security, and the future independence of the Western Hemisphere, a consultation of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs appears to be of urgent desirability.

Therefore, in conformity with the procedure on consultation approved by the Second Meeting of Foreign Ministers at Habana, the Government of

the United States is informing the Governing Board of the Pan American Union of its desire to hold a consultative meeting at the earliest possible moment.

Inasmuch as the procedure agreed upon in Habana provides that the Governing Board of the Pan American Union shall not only transmit the

request for consultation but, on the basis of the answer received, determine the date of the meeting, prepare the agenda, and adopt all other measures advisable for the preparation of the meeting, it is hoped that each country will appropriately instruct its diplomatic representative in Washington in the premises.

The Municipal Library of São Paulo

RODOLFO A. RIVERA

*Executive Secretary, American Library Association
Committee on Cooperation with Latin America*

A twenty-story skyscraper library will be opened in January 1942 to serve São Paulo, the metropolis of southern Brazil and a progressive, wide-awake community of over 1,500,000 inhabitants. What this admirable home of books will be and the importance it will have for the city are worthy of our attention. The enterprising librarian is Dr. Rubens Borba de Moraes, a European-trained Paulista. The American Library Association counted itself fortunate to have Dr. Moraes among its distinguished guests at its San Francisco Conference in 1939, after which he visited and observed public and university libraries in the United States for more than two months, in order to become acquainted with the organization and philosophy of library service in this country.

Under the guidance of Dr. Moraes the São Paulo Library has taken its place as one of the most important cultural institutions in São Paulo, and has been converted into a center not only for reading but also for learning and research.

Brazil has 778 public libraries registered with the National Book Institute. Among

these is the National Library at Rio de Janeiro, which has a magnificent collection of a million and a half volumes, an untold wealth of manuscripts, and a competent staff. The State of São Paulo, which is exceeded only by the Federal District, has 139 libraries and is followed by Minas Gerais with 112, and Rio Grande do Sul with 56. Judging from these figures, the position of São Paulo is important.

It is also of interest to consider here the advancement of libraries sponsored by the Department of Culture of the city of São Paulo. A brief description of some aspects of this Department is pertinent.

In 1934 it was organized by Fabio Prado, then Prefect of São Paulo. The Municipal Library, founded in 1925, was made a division of the Department and a detailed plan of library reform to be put in operation over a period of years was decided upon. This plan included various points: 1, complete reorganization of the technical services; 2, adoption of a coordinated plan of library extension; 3, training of personnel; and 4, cooperation with other cultural institutions.

The first problem was attacked immediately and attempts were made to assemble a competent staff to operate the city library. The cataloging and classification were remodeled and systematized according to modern practice; the whole internal organization was brought up to date—important tasks which the public does not know about, but which are the heart and soul of a library. It is with just pride that Dr. Moraes claims that service in his library is thoroughly efficient. This overhauling was carried out through tremendous efforts on the part of the staff, but would not have produced the expected results unless it had been accompanied by other measures taken by the city government.

The most important of these was the erection of a library worthy of the city of São Paulo and of its importance as a cultural center. Started during Prado's ad-

ministration, the building was continued by his successors. As has been said, the library will soon be completely installed in its new home. Surrounded by a beautiful garden, it stands on the corner of the Rua Consolação and the Rua San Luiz, facing the former. In order to give the building a more attractive setting in the midst of the Paulista metropolis, it was decided to have a public square in front of it. Undoubtedly this will be one of the choicest spots in São Paulo, crowned as it is by a twenty-story tower of books. Everything in the planning of the building was carefully studied in order to provide the reader with a maximum of comfort and efficiency. It will have air-conditioning and carefully chosen lighting, elevators, book conveyors, etc., all of the most modern type.

The new quarters of the library will provide ample room for expansion. The present book stacks will accommodate



MUNICIPAL LIBRARY,
SÃO PAULO, BRAZIL

Courtesy of Rodolfo O. Rivera

500,000 volumes and there is additional space for as many more. Every department has been planned with the thought of providing the reader with facilities for research and study equal to those found in the most modern libraries. Many services new to Brazil will be established: a competent reference and bibliography department, free book circulation, an art department, and others.

When the Library Division of the Department of Culture drew up its plan for library extension in connection with the second point on its program, this plan consisted of two parts: the creation of a children's library and libraries in city parks, and a system of branch libraries for various sections of the city. The children's library is already functioning with a success far above all expectations. Three hundred and fifty children make their appearance daily. This is one of the most interesting things in São Paulo; in a suitable environment the children find an appropriate collection of books and magazines, the like of which, it is claimed, cannot be found elsewhere in Brazil. Women librarians are there to help the children, who are at liberty to come and go as they please. They ask for the books they want to see and take home those they choose.

Once a week there are movies for children. The films shown are especially selected for them, and the equipment used is as good as that of any movie house in the city. In this way, the library is a place of both recreation and culture for the children.

In the spacious new building the model children's department will also be a center for the training of children's librarians. In Brazil, as in any other country, it is advantageous to instill the reading habit in the younger generation.

In pursuit of the plan of extension service the Library Division of the Department of Culture inaugurated an open air

library for the purpose of advertising and attracting readers to the main building. Installed in a special automobile, it is stationed alternately in two city parks. It carries books, magazines and newspapers. The many people who flock to it are clear testimony of its usefulness. Over 20,000 persons came to its doors this last year.

It has not yet been possible to start any of the branch libraries, although one of the buildings has been completed in a workers' residential section. It is the intention of the Municipal Government to proceed with the expansion of the plan of the Library Division of the Department of Culture as rapidly as the financial situation will permit. This part of the plan is absolutely necessary for the library development of São Paulo. The idea is to make the branches reading centers, while the central library will be the study, research and reference center. This system not only will prevent overcrowding at the main library, but will also bring books closer to the people and within easier reach, thus assuring maximum opportunity for reading.

None of these ideas would have been possible without a competent staff. The amateur phase of librarianship is now long past. The modern librarian requires special knowledge of the technical processes of his profession just as doctors or engineers need specialized training. This specialization is necessary if the library is to be more than a place to store books. To solve this problem the Library Division founded a Library School in 1937. Through that school passed not only all the staff members of the Municipal Library, but those of many other libraries in the state of São Paulo. Unfortunately, the Department of Culture found it impossible to continue this school, but the Free School of Sociology and Political Science, in an effort to help the worthy cause, opened a course in library science

in 1940. Sixty students registered and it is hoped the course may be continued and expanded without interruption. To be appointed to a library in São Paulo, the candidate needs a library science diploma and must pass an examination. Strict compliance with this regulation will assure the continuation of the school and the problem of the lay librarian will have been solved.

The Director of the Municipal Library believes that cooperation with other learned institutions is essential, since a library cannot isolate itself. In coordination with the National Book Institute it is compiling a Brazilian bibliography, at least one volume to be issued annually. The first is to cover everything published in Brazil in 1938. The Institute will compile data for Rio de Janeiro, the library for São Paulo, and together they will determine the format, organization, and other matters pertaining to the bibliography.

During the last academic year two important members of the staff of the São Paulo Municipal Library were granted fellowships to study in this country. At the Louisiana State University Library School they made a remarkable record. They have already returned to São Paulo to assume positions of responsibility. One, José Almeida de Azevedo, will be in charge of the cataloging department; the other, Maria Leonor Boiglaender, will be head of the reference department. Another member of the Library staff, Irene de Bojano, attended the Inter-American Institute at the University of North Carolina last winter.

There is very close cooperation between the São Paulo Library and the American Library Association, and it had been hoped that the librarians of the United States would be represented at the time of the inauguration of the new building, when it takes place in January.



Indian motive from "Revista Brasileira de Música"

Inter-American Conference of Police and Judicial Authorities

THE Inter-American Conference of Police and Judicial Authorities was provided for in a resolution adopted at the Second Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held at Habana, Cuba, in July 1940.

In accordance with this resolution the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, after consultation with the Government of Argentina, agreed that the Conference should meet in Buenos Aires in September 1942, the exact date to be fixed by the Government of Argentina. The Governing Board formulated the program and regulations of the Conference which, after submission to the member Governments, were approved at the session of November 5, 1941.

Each American Republic will be represented at the Conference by a jurist with plenipotentiary powers, who may be accompanied to the plenary or committee sessions by technical advisers appointed by the respective governments in the number they deem necessary. Such technical advisers, however, will have no vote.

The program of the Conference is as follows:

I. NATIONAL DEFENSE AGAINST ESPIONAGE, SABOTAGE, TREASON, SEDITION AND SUBVERSIVE ACTIVITIES

1. Police and legal control of the diffusion of propaganda directed, assisted or abetted by foreign governments, groups or individuals tending to place in jeopardy the security, institutions and democratic ideals of the American Republics.

2. Police and legal control of activities directed, assisted or abetted by foreign governments, groups or individuals tending to foment military or civil disorder.

3. Police and judicial control of activities directed against communication and transportation facilities, industries, utilities and defense establishments.

4. Coordination of the activities, responsibilities and methods of the police authorities of each of the American Republics in the foregoing fields.

5. Review of existing legislation and of judicial procedures with a view to the adoption and enforcement by the American Republics of similar laws and regulations within their constitutional limits.

II. INTER-AMERICAN COOPERATION

1. Coordination of the systems established in each State:

(a) For the identification of persons and for the recording of data on their conduct and activities.

(b) For the exchange of information on the transit of persons from one State to another.

2. Agreement on rules and procedures:

(a) For the communication of judicial sentences handed down in one State which might interest another.

(b) For compliance with requests for extradition.

(c) For facilitating the issuance of documentary proof and data on the commission of criminal acts.

(d) For the expulsion of undesirable aliens.

3. Cooperation between the civil authorities of all of the American Republics, particularly with regard to the exchange of information, and the maintenance of liaison with the military and naval authorities of these Republics in connection therewith.

De Medellín a Bogotá

JOSÉ MEDINA

. . . El regreso a Bogotá tiene sus encantos. Aquí hay vida de ciudad. Casi todos los aspectos de la capital tienen variedad de expresión y hacen agradable el tiempo. En Medellín la vida es muy distinta. De la fábrica a la casa y al día siguiente nos volvemos al trabajo. Ocasionalmente vamos al cine para cambiar el panorama del Club Unión, en donde el tema obligado es el movimiento de los negocios. La política nacional, la guerra europea, las actividades del gobierno, son temas que surgen cuando hay una pausa en la discusión de los problemas industriales o en la serie de comentarios al rededor de los negocios del ganado, de la producción de oro, o de la venta de mercancías. Y si a alguien se le ocurre salir a caminar, después de la comida, el saludo obligado de los amigos es siempre relacionado con los negocios, en forma de preguntas:

“¿Muy ocupado?” o “¿Estuvieron buenas las ventas?” “¿Qué tal la feria de hoy?” . . .

Medellín no tiene zonas de negocios y zonas de ociosos. Existen unos pocos cafés en el centro de la ciudad sin las oleadas de concurrentes que vemos en Bogotá, en donde los cafés constituyen una institución tan necesaria como los famosos establecimientos de las ciudades europeas. En la capital antioqueña no hay grupos en

From “El Tiempo,” Bogotá, July 18, 1941.

las calles y esquinas en charla continua. Bogotá es una ciudad en donde se conversa todo el día. Los ociosos se ocupan de ociosidades, y las personas serias discuten la política y “la situación.” Esto de “la situación” es un tema inagotable.

En Bogotá las zonas de interés están muy claramente definidas. Si usted quiere que lo tomen en serio debe frecuentar los cafés de la Carrera Octava, entre las Calles 13 y 14.¹ Quien se detenga en la esquina de la Carrera Séptima con la Calle 14 es un poeta, un político, un empleado público o un turista. Baja una cuadra por la misma Calle 14 hasta la Carrera Octava, y ya es un hombre de negocios. La zona de estacionamiento es decisiva.

Y dentro de estas zonas los cafés y restaurantes tienen sus públicos. Por ejemplo, a pocos metros de la Carrera Séptima para arriba, hay senadores y representantes, estadistas de cuerpo entero y aspirantes a estadistas, periodistas y profesores, y un público que no frecuentaría los establecimientos similares a la vuelta de la esquina, sobre la Carrera Séptima. En la Carrera Octava, en la cuadra de los negocios, cada café tiene su público especial, pero en todo caso de actividades comerciales, bancarias y bursátiles.

¹ *In Colombian cities which, according to the rules prescribed for Spanish colonial cities, have in general a checkerboard plan, all the calles are parallel and the carreras, also parallel, form the other sides of the squares.*



Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

AT the first regular session of the 1941-42 season of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Secretary of State Cordell Hull of the United States was re-elected chairman for the ensuing year. This is the ninth consecutive year that Mr. Hull has held that position, and he is the first person in the history of the Union to do so. The vice-chairman elected is Dr. Diógenes Escalante, the Ambassador of Venezuela.

Inter-American Conference of Police and Judicial Authorities

The Governing Board approved the report of the committee on the Inter-American Conference of Police and Judicial Authori-

ties; the report stated that the government of Argentina had agreed to the meeting of the conference in Buenos Aires in September, 1942, and it contained the program and regulations of the conference, which had been approved by the governments, members of the Union. For the text of the program, see p. 44.

Inter-American Copyright Protection

The Eighth International Conference of American States requested the Pan American Union to transmit the draft Protocol on Inter-American Copyright Protection presented for its consideration to the American governments for their comments, and, on the basis of these com-

ments, to prepare a definite convention on the subject, which should be presented for discussion at an international conference or opened for signature by the American republics at the Pan American Union.

The draft protocol was presented to the governments, and now has been amended to conform with the suggestions received from 10 countries. The committee of the Governing Board to which the matter had been entrusted reported that, in view of the

importance that the question of copyright protection has assumed in the movement of cultural interchange among the Americas, it would be advisable to make certain that the convention in final form has a reasonable possibility of acceptance and ratification by the member governments, and recommended that those governments that have not as yet commented on the protocol be invited to do so on or before February 15, 1942.

Pan American News

Agreement between Mexico and the United States

The Governments of the United States and Mexico, desirous of finding practical solutions for a number of problems of mutual interest, have been engaged in a series of conversations and negotiations over a period of months. The Department of State of the United States announced with deep satisfaction on November 19, 1941, that, as a result of these discussions, agreement has been reached with regard to a number of those matters, as follows:

I. EXPROPRIATION OF PETROLEUM PROPERTIES

By an exchange of notes today between the Mexican Ambassador and the Department of State, provision is made for determining the amount due to the American companies and interests whose properties and rights have been affected to their detriment by acts of the Mexican Government through acts of expropriation or otherwise on March 18, 1938 and subsequent thereto, excepting those which have already made separate arrangements with the Mexican Government.

The two Governments will each appoint within the next thirty days an expert whose duty it shall be to determine the just compensation to be paid the American owners for their properties and rights and interests.

If the American and Mexican experts shall agree upon the amount to be paid, they shall render their joint report to the two Governments within five months. If they shall be unable to reach an agreement within that time, each shall submit a separate report to his Government within a further period of thirty days. Upon the receipt of such reports, the two Governments shall seek through diplomatic negotiations to determine the amount of compensation to be paid.

The Mexican Government is today making a cash deposit of \$9,000,000 on account of the compensation to be paid the affected American companies and interests.

II. CLAIMS

The two Governments have found a means, so long lacking, of adjusting other outstanding property claims, including the so-called General Claims and the agrarian claims.

Under a Claims Convention signed today, Mexico agrees to pay to the United States the sum of \$40,000,000 in full settlement of these property claims. Mexico will make a payment of \$3,000,000 on account at the time of exchange of ratifications of the Convention. Mexico has

already made payments amounting to \$3,000,000 on account of agrarian claims arising between August 30, 1927 and October 7, 1940.

The balance remaining due to the United States amounting to \$34,000,000, after the \$3,000,000 payment when ratifications are exchanged, will be liquidated over a period of years through the annual payment by Mexico of \$2,500,000, beginning in 1942.

III. TRADE AGREEMENT

The two Governments have decided in principle to negotiate a reciprocal trade agreement. Formal announcement of intention to negotiate will be made in due course, in accordance with the pertinent provisions of law.

IV. STABILIZATION OF THE MEXICAN PESO- U. S. DOLLAR RATE OF EXCHANGE

The Treasury Department has entered into an agreement for monetary and financial cooperation with the Mexican Government and the Banco de México, which will provide, among other things, for the purchase of Mexican pesos with United States dollars. The U. S. dollars thus acquired by the Mexican authorities will greatly assist them in stabilizing the exchange value of the peso in terms of the dollar, to the mutual benefit and advantage of the two countries.

V. MEXICAN SILVER

The Treasury Department has also indicated its willingness to purchase newly mined Mexican silver direct from the Mexican Government on a basis similar to that under which such purchases were made prior to 1938.

VI. FINANCING OF MEXICAN PROJECTS

The Mexican Government has been engaged for a number of years in an important highway-construction program. It has financed a large part of this construction through the issuance of highway bonds which have been consistently serviced without any delays or difficulties. In order that the Mexican Government may expedite this highway-construction program, it has requested the Export-Import Bank to accept certain of these highway bonds as security for credits. The Export-Import Bank has acceded to this request and has opened a credit on this account.

It will be recalled that the Mexican highway system is a most important part of the Inter-American Highway and that construction work is well advanced in Mexico and a number of the other American republics.

The Export-Import Bank is disposed to consider sympathetically other requests for credits for developments in Mexico, whether they are to be executed by the Mexican Government or are private enterprises guaranteed by that Government, or one of its official agencies.

VII. OTHER PROBLEMS

The two Governments are actively continuing to study all other problems of interest to them.

The text of the exchange of notes follows.

November 19, 1941.

EXCELLENCY:

I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt of Your Excellency's note of today's date, reading as follows:

"I have the honor to refer to recent conversations I have had with Your Excellency with reference to compensating the nationals of the United States of America whose properties, rights or interests in the petroleum industry in the United Mexican States were affected by acts of expropriation or otherwise by the Government of Mexico subsequent to March 17, 1938.

"It is my understanding that the following has been agreed upon:

"1. Each of the Governments will appoint, within the thirty days following the date of this note, an expert whose duty it shall be to determine the just compensation to be paid the nationals of the United States of America whose properties, rights or interests in the petroleum industry in the United Mexican States were affected to their detriment by acts of the Government of Mexico subsequent to March 17, 1938. Nevertheless, the provisions of this note do not apply to properties, rights or interests which may have been included in any arrangement with respect to their purchase, transfer or indemnification concluded between their owners or possessors and the Government of the United Mexican States and, in consequence, the experts will exclude from their evaluation proceedings and reports said rights, interests and properties.

"2. The designated experts will hold their first meeting in Mexico City within 15 days following the appointment last made by either Government. The later meetings and other activities of the experts will take place on the dates and at the places which the experts themselves determine within the periods contemplated by this agreement and they shall be held on Mexican territory.

"3. Each Government shall designate such assistants as the respective experts may require to facilitate their labors.

"4. The expenses of salaries, maintenance, transportation and other incidental expenditures of the experts and their assistants, will be met by the Government naming them. The joint expenses incurred during the proceedings of the experts shall be shared equally by the two Governments.

"5. The experts shall at all times closely collaborate and cooperate in their evaluation proceedings. They may obtain directly such data and evidence as they may consider pertinent to forming their opinion, or receive them from the interested persons and institutions and from the Governments of Mexico and of the United States of America.

"6. The experts shall have free access to all records in the possession of the Mexican Government, as well as to the oil fields, lands, installations, offices, buildings and any other properties whatsoever involved directly or indirectly in the evaluation. The United States expert, on the request of the Mexican expert, will ask the interested persons and institutions for pertinent evidence; when such request relates to evidence already submitted by such persons or institutions their refusal to comply with the request will bring into operation the applicable provision of paragraph 9.

"7. As soon as one expert obtains or learns of any pertinent data, report, or evidence, he will inform the other. Either expert may request from the other the furnishing of any data, report or evidence which for any reason is available only to the other.

"8. Within a period of two months, from the date of their first meeting, the experts shall obtain and receive all data, reports, and evidence; except that a further period of one month shall be allowed for the presentation by either expert of additional data, reports and evidence complementing, clarifying or rectifying the material obtained or received in the said period of two months.

"9. The experts are required to examine and appraise all the proofs obtained directly or that may be submitted to them. They shall not take into account any specific evidence submitted *ex parte* when the person or institution submitting it refuses in connection with it to furnish pertinent complementary evidence requested by the United States expert, in accordance with the provisions of paragraph 6. The

experts shall not take into account reasons of a technical nature in formulating their decisions—be these joint or those submitted in disagreement—but will fix adequate indemnities on the basis of common rules of justice and equity and will be guided by the value of the properties, rights or interests at the time they were affected by acts of the Government of Mexico, provided that these properties, rights or interests had been acquired by nationals of the United States of America prior to March 18, 1938.

"10. The experts shall complete their work within five months from the date of this note. If they are in accord regarding the amount of the compensation due to the affected United States nationals, they shall submit a joint report to the two Governments fixing exactly the indemnities upon which they agree. The experts shall formulate recommendations as to the manner and conditions of payment of the compensation.

"11. The experts shall fix equitable interest upon the indemnity compensation they find due; this interest will apply from the date fixed by these experts up to the time of payment.

"12. Both Governments agree to consider unappealable the joint report resulting from the agreement of the experts, and, in consequence, as definitive, the compensation and interest fixed in such report.

"13. If, within the period indicated in paragraph 10, the experts are unable to reach agreement regarding the amount of just compensation, each one, within an additional period of one month, shall submit to his own Government a separate report specifying the compensations which he considers due.

"14. In the event that the two experts fail to agree, and upon the expiration of the period specified in paragraph 13, the two Governments shall, within a period of one month, initiate diplomatic negotiations with a view to establishing the amount of the compensations to be paid.

"15. If, within a period of five months from the date of initiation of diplomatic negotiations, as provided in paragraph 14, the two Governments do not agree upon the amount of compensation to be paid, the present agreement shall be without effect, and there shall be returned to the United Mexican States, at the request of the Government thereof, the amount deposited in accordance with the pertinent stipulation of the following paragraph.

"16. The two Governments shall agree upon

the manner and conditions of payment of the compensation found to be due to the affected United States nationals under either of the two aforementioned procedures. Such payment shall, however, be completed within a period of not more than seven years.

"The Government of Mexico will deliver today, as a deposit, to the Government of the United States of America, the sum of \$9,000,000 (nine million dollars), United States currency, which sum shall be applied immediately on account of the compensation determined to be due.

"17. The Government of the United States will facilitate negotiations between the Government of Mexico and representatives of such oil companies as may be interested in an agreement for the marketing of exports of Mexican petroleum products.

"18. Nothing contained in this note shall be regarded as a precedent or be invoked by either of the two Governments in the settlement, between them, of any future difficulty, conflict, controversy or arbitration. The action herein provided for is considered as singular and exceptional, appropriate solely to this case, and motivated by the character of the problem itself."

In reply, I have the honor to confirm the understanding we have reached as set forth in Your Excellency's note under reference.

Accept, Excellency, the renewed assurances of my highest consideration.

CORDELL HULL

His Excellency

Señor Dr. DON FRANCISCO CASTILLO
NÁJERA,

Ambassador of Mexico.

Message of the President of Ecuador

On August 10, 1941, the President of Ecuador, Dr. Carlos Arroyo del Río, read his annual message to the National Congress. The message summarized in more or less detail the many problems, domestic and international, that now confront the nation.

Touching first upon foreign affairs, the President stated that the international problem, in respect to both the boundary dispute between Ecuador and Peru and the world situation in general, is of outstanding importance. In regard to the former, he reiterated the fact that Ecuador proposed that the boundary controversy be submitted to arbitration and accepted the offer of Argentina, Brazil, and the United States to cooperate in solving the differences. In regard to the situation created by the war in Europe, he stated that Ecuador will adopt no apathetic attitude toward threats to continental security but will cooperate to the best of its ability in all hemispheric defense measures.

National defense was a matter of great preoccupation to the Government, said the President. Affirming that military preparation should be organized and constant, he requested that Congress grant the Government powers adequate for any contingency and asked for reforms to the nation's military legislation that would be conducive to an effective organization of the country's armed forces.

Taking up the question of the country's finances, the President pointed out that to already existing economic difficulties had been added those resulting from the war in Europe. The economic effects of the war are felt daily and the task of seeking a balance between decreased national revenues and necessary expenditures is becoming more and more complicated. Customs receipts were drastically impaired following passage of the decree controlling imports; exports of oil decreased because of the difficulties and limitations of transportation; revenues of the State Monopoly diminished because of decreased sales of aguardiente following an increase in its price; and since these are the principal sources of national income, the effect on

the national treasury was inevitably adverse. But in spite of these economic reverses, the aim of the Government, said the President, has been not to create new tax levies but to collect and use existing ones to the best possible advantage.

In reference to governmental administration, both national and local, the President voiced regret at the decentralization of the Executive Power and the lack of administrative unity that prevails generally in the Government, and he urged Congress to make a study of the present administrative system with a view toward its reform. In order that municipal authorities may function with all the guarantees and facilities granted them by the Constitution, he urgently recommended a legal reform that would, in certain cases, end the term of office of the members of town and city councils and lead the way to new elections. In general, he said, government intervention in the inspection and auditing of municipal affairs should be broader and more efficient, in order to prevent irregularities and misfeasance on the part of municipal authorities.

The Department of Public Works, said the President, has suffered from the consequences of an excessive administrative decentralization that makes a well-integrated public works plan almost impossible for the country. He urged a reform in this respect, in order that all efforts might be concentrated and more effective results obtained. He asked that a carefully planned national public works program be formulated, based on a realistic conception of needs and available funds, in order to solve this difficult but very essential problem.

Referring briefly to highways, he stated that after the Government obtained the \$1,150,000 loan from the Export-Import Bank of Washington in May 1940,

\$900,000 of which was for road construction, contracts were let for work on the following highways, which will serve several important sections of the country: Quito-Quinindé, Cuenca-Loja, Cuenca-Guamote, Manta-Jipijapa, Macuchi-Latacunga, and Piedras-Piñas.

The remainder of the Export-Import Bank loan is being devoted to the improvement of agriculture. Some valuable experimental work is being done at the agricultural farm at Ambato; a technical expert from the United States arrived to engage in research work on the disease that afflicts the cacao plantations; and the first contingent of a lot of select cattle was received. This first group was sent into the mountainous regions of the country and a second group, of a type more adapted to the coastal regions, was on order.

Turning to the subject of public education, the President stated that the desire and initiative of the Government to extend educational facilities were limited only by the cold reality of a restricted budget. Nevertheless, as far as funds permitted, certain projects were carried forward: some increase, even though a small one, was made in the number of schools; repair and replacement of equipment was effected in some cases; scholastic prizes were established; and aid was given to cultural institutions. Much more remains to be done, but more money must be found before it can be accomplished. It is also desirable, said the President, that certain reforms, especially those tending toward a more practical kind of training, be embodied in the educational system. Another problem that each year becomes more serious is the over-supply of normal school graduates.

An extensive part of the message was devoted to the subject of social insurance and welfare. Supporting his remarks with

quotations from reports submitted by experts early in 1941 to the head of the National Welfare Institute, the President stated that Ecuador's social security system needs an immediate and fundamental revision. The present system was started in all good faith but without the adequate preliminary study that would have established it on a more solid technical basis. In order to guarantee desired results to beneficiaries, it is now necessary, said the President, to strengthen the system, and he recommended that suitable action be taken by Congress to clarify the system's legal status and regulate its technical organization. He stated, also, that in next year's budget the Government's contribution to social insurance has been increased, and an appreciable amount provided for payment to the Pension Fund on the sum owed from previous years.

The President spoke also of other branches of social work. Child welfare was the object of particular governmental attention and strenuous efforts were made to distribute available funds in such a manner as to permit completion and operation of a number of children's homes. The children's vacation camps, created to help underprivileged children, have been taking care of increasing numbers from many different provinces. The President spoke in glowing terms of the results achieved in these camps and urged extension of this praiseworthy enterprise.

Radical reforms were introduced in the field of rural medical service. Traveling medical units were organized to replace the former stationary centers in towns, and results have been most promising. Health and sanitation campaigns need ample funds, the President emphasized, if they are to be of real benefit, and he asked Congress to give attention to the allocation of funds for cooperation with

the National Hygiene Institute established in Guayaquil by the Rockefeller Institute and the General Health Office.

Labor problems received their due share of attention, the Government's action in all cases having been directed toward settling disputes between employers and employees in harmony with the best interests of both. The laboring classes have benefited particularly from the numerous decrees fixing minimum wages in various industries and forms of labor.

The message closed with an appeal to Congress for strong, carefully planned, and constructive action in every field of activity. The essential requirement, affirmed the President, is to face realities and to serve the Nation's vital interests by working methodically and effectively to stabilize administration, to correct faults and abuses, and to guide the country safely through the present difficult times.—D.M.T.

Commission of Experts on Maritime Affairs

At its meeting on November 14, 1941, the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee approved the following resolution:

WHEREAS:

I

There was placed in effect on August 28, 1941 a plan for the effective use in the interest of inter-American commerce of the ships to which the Resolution of the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee of April 26, 1941 refers:

II

The principles in paragraphs 1 and 3 of the Inter-American plan to which the same Resolution refers are the following:

(1) The basic principle of the plan is that the vessels now lying in American ports shall be utilized in accordance with the resolution of April 26, 1941 in such a manner as to promote the defense of the economies of the American

Republics as well as the peace and security of the continent.

(3) In order to attain the maximum efficiency in the operation of available shipping, there must be the closest cooperation among the maritime authorities of the ship-operating nations of the Western Hemisphere in planning the most effective use of all available vessels. This cooperation must extend to the allocation of particular vessels to the several trade routes; to efficient scheduling where more than one shipping line serves an individual port or nation; to the diversion of at least minimum shipping facilities to those nations not reasonably adequately served and in which there lie no or not sufficient inactive vessels to alleviate at least partially the situation; and to the exchange or interchange among the ship-operating nations of vessels of various types in order that each may operate the type of vessels which it is in a position to handle and which are appropriate to the type of commerce to be borne.

III

The Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, on August 7, 1941, adopted a report of the Special Subcommittee on Immobilized Ships, that contains the following:

"6.—The Subcommittee has noted that three of the Governments,—Argentina, Chile and Mexico,—have raised some questions with regard to paragraph 3 of the plan, which is intended to provide for the closest cooperation in the utilization of all available vessels in the Western Hemisphere. Such cooperation will be that of sovereign nations, however, and it is intended that the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee shall have no more than an advisory status in the matter."

RESOLVES:

1. To recommend the organization of a Commission that will be a dependency of the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, and that will consist of one representative of the aforementioned Committee, who will act as Chairman of the Commission, and also of experts representing the respective Maritime Authorities, one to be designated by each of the Governments of the American Republics that have taken, or are in a position to take over, the immobilized ships referred to by the Inter-American plan approved August 28, 1941. The representative of the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee will be chosen

by the Chairman from among those Delegates to the Committee that do not represent any of the countries appointing the other members of the Commission.

2. The Commission will carry out the aims contained in paragraphs 1 and 3 of the aforementioned inter-American plan, and to this effect, will meet regularly in its place of residence, which will be in the United States of America, in order to formulate plans for the efficient use of all the merchant vessels available for service between the American Republics and to recommend to the Maritime Authorities the allocation of such vessels to particular routes or to the carrying of articles of a specific nature. The Commission will communicate its recommendations to the Maritime Authorities through the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee.

3. In order to avoid any delay in the functioning of the Commission, it will be considered as constituted as soon as four of its members have been designated.

United States credits for Latin American purchases

The Export-Import Bank of Washington, with the assistance of the Department of Commerce and the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, announced on October 29, 1941, the formulation of a plan under which the United States Government will finance Latin American purchases in the United States, requiring no payment until the goods are actually delivered at their Latin American ports of destination. The amount of these credits is estimated to be some \$70,000,000 per month.

Because of the defense projects in the United States and the resultant restrictions on private trade, Latin American importers have recently been experiencing great difficulties and risks in securing United States products. The credit plan is directed toward easing this situation and solving the double problem created by (1) the lack of sufficient dollar resources in

Latin American banks which makes it impossible for Latin American importers to obtain letters of credit, particularly irrevocable letters of credit, extending over any lengthy period, and (2) the insistence of some United States manufacturers that private Latin American orders be accompanied by letters of credit payable against certificates of manufacture at the manufacturer's plant instead of against shipping documents.

Outlined briefly, the plan, which requires no special legislation to put it into effect and which for the first time creates for the benefit of United States exporters a form of governmental credit insurance on foreign trade transactions, contemplates the establishment of special lines of credit for Central and South American banks to supplement existing lines. These new credits will be used in cases where neither importer nor exporter is willing to assume the risks of delivery to ports of destination. The Export-Import Bank itself will assume those risks, subject to reasonable limits and conditions. It will enter into arrangements with the United States banking correspondents of Central and South American banks and will advance funds for the opening of letters of credit and payments of drafts. In any country taking advantage of this arrangement, the credits thus advanced must cover essential imports of United States industrial and/or agricultural products, to be shipped on vessels of United States registry if possible, or otherwise on the vessels of the other American republics. When an order is completed and ready for shipment, the United States manufacturer will be paid according to the terms of the letter of credit, but no demand for payment will be made on the Latin American bank or Latin American importer until the goods are actually delivered at their destination. An important condition to such

facilities, however, is that no products thus imported may be re-exported to any other country.

The credits may be set up for a period not exceeding twelve months from the date of opening, but since the expiration date will as a rule be the estimated date on which the products will be ready for shipment, an additional four months will be allowed during which time the Export-Import Bank will assume the risk of delivery to the ports of destination. If delivery is not made before the additional four months elapse, the Latin American bank is to have the option of granting an extension of time or of being released from the transaction.

The commission and interest charges are based on usual banking charges for such services, plus an additional charge to cover credit insurance and the importer's freedom from all liability until he gets his merchandise.

Mr. Warren Lee Pierson, President of the Export-Import Bank, in an article explaining the plan, published in *Foreign Commerce Weekly* (United States Department of Commerce), November 1, 1941, summarized its aims as follows:

Thus, the Export-Import Bank will become a "Clearing House," where necessary, for American republic purchases of United States products, facilitating especially the inter-American commerce of the small businessman and the smaller banking institutions. Much badly needed capital has had to be tied up during the last few months in order for Central and South Americans to purchase or order North American goods. Sometimes cash has had to be escrowed for many months between the time the order was placed and the time the order was filled and ready for ocean shipment.

We hope that this new plan of the Export-Import Bank will also be of realistic service to North American manufacturers by assuring them, when required, quicker payments—and much better satisfied Latin American customers. It will make it possible for Latin American importers to conduct business along lines extended to them

by European suppliers. Furthermore, it will minimize the financial problems arising from the shifting of their import agents from those of pro-Axis activities—most of them were financially strong—to others more favorable to our Western Hemisphere philosophies and assets.

Twenty-eighth International Congress of Americanists

A recent decree of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Chile named the Organizing Committee for the 28th International Congress of Americanists which, in accordance with a resolution adopted by the 27th Congress that met in Mexico City and Lima in 1939, is scheduled to meet in Santiago in 1942.

The Organizing Committee is composed of the following: Dr. Ricardo E. Latcham, Director of the Museum of Natural History; Dr. Aureliano Oyarzún, Director of the National Historical Museum; Professor Gustavo Jirón; Ricardo Donoso, president of the Chilean Society of History and Geography; Carlos Oliver Schneider, director of the Museum of Concepción; Gualterio Looser, president of the Academy of Natural Sciences; Professor Humberto Fuenzalida; Luis Galdames, of the University of Chile; Eugenio Pereira Salas, secretary general of the Chilean Society of History and Geography; Hugo Gunckel, director of the Araucanian Museum of Temuco; and Juan Mujica, of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

The Committee set to work at once on preliminary arrangements for the Congress. At its first session the date of the Congress was fixed for the first fortnight of April 1942. Ricardo Donoso was elected chairman of the Organizing Committee; Drs. Ricardo E. Latcham and Aureliano Oyarzún, vice chairmen; Humberto Fuenzalida, treasurer; and Juan Mujica, secretary.

Honorary members of the Organizing

Committee include the President of Chile, the Ministers of Foreign Affairs and Education, and the university rectors.¹

First Peruvian Press Exposition

During the period July 25–August 4, 1941, there was held in the City Hall of Lima the First Exposition of the Peruvian Press. The Exposition was organized by the Office of Propaganda and Information under the patronage of the President of Peru, Manuel Prado, and under the active direction of Dr. Guillermo Garrido Lecca, Minister of Government, Dr. Pedro M. Oliveira, Minister of Public Education, and Luis Gallo Porras, Mayor of Lima.

A comprehensive collection of exhibits was assembled, including news bulletins, gazettes, newspapers, periodicals, and reviews published in the country from the year 1594, when Peru's first news sheet was issued, to the present time. The exhibits were divided into three sections: The first group displayed examples of various news organs that appeared in Peru during the years 1594 to 1790; the second group was comprised of newspapers that were regularly published from the year 1790, when the first daily Peruvian paper, *El Diario de Lima*, was established, to 1821; and the third group was made up of a vast collection of publications in all lines of Peruvian journalistic activity during the 150 years from 1790 to 1940. There was also an interesting gallery of nearly 500 engravings and photographs of newspaper founders, editors, journalists, and other men and women who through the years have contributed to the development and progress of journalism in Peru. Several of the principal newspapers and press associations also arranged instructive and highly interesting exhibits.

¹ Just before this issue went to press, word was received that the Congress is indefinitely postponed.

FIRST EXPOSITION OF THE PERUVIAN PRESS



Courtesy of Esteban Pavletich

Valuable cooperation in assembling and arranging the Exposition was given by the National Library, the Library of the University of San Marcos, the entire press of the country, municipal councils, ecclesiastical authorities, public and private cultural organizations, and numerous interested individuals.

Aside from the journalistic and cultural value of the Exposition, which was visited by some 40,000 persons, it may well be considered, as one of the daily papers in Lima pointed out, as "homage to the Peruvian spirit, immortalized in innumerable pages that, today more than ever, we should remember in order to fortify out national soul."

Maria Moors Cabot Journalism Prizes awarded for 1941

The annual Maria Moors Cabot Prizes for journalistic achievement recognized as contributing to international friendship in the Western Hemisphere were awarded for the third time on November 10, 1941, at a special convocation in the Low Memorial

Library of Columbia University. The recipients were: Dr. Paulo Bettencourt, editor and publisher of the daily *Correio da Manhã*, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil; Mme. Sylvia Bettencourt, his wife, and author of the column "Majoy" in the same paper; Dr. Carlos Dávila, of Chile, editor of Editors Press Service, New York; and Dr. José Ignacio Rivero, editor and publisher of the *Diario de la Marina*, Habana, Cuba.

Mme. Bettencourt, who is the first woman to win this distinction, and Dr. Dávila each received gold medals, and in addition to similar medals Drs. Bettencourt and Rivero were also given bronze plaques for their respective newspapers. A stipend of \$1,000 was also given to each of the prize winners.

Speeches of acceptance were made by Dr. Rivero, whose remarks in Spanish were translated by Dean Carl W. Ackerman of the Columbia Graduate School of Journalism, and by Mme. Bettencourt, who discussed the rising influence of women in South America.

At a dinner given the following day at the Waldorf-Astoria Hotel in honor of the

four prize winners, Drs. Dávila and Bettencourt spoke, each of them stressing the importance of a free press in the defense of democracy and the development of understanding among nations.

The Maria Moors Cabot Prizes, established by Columbia University by means of a gift from Dr. Godfrey Lowell Cabot of Boston in memory of his wife, are awarded on the basis of professional and educational excellence and achievement, without regard for political or economic ideologies. They are given to newspapers, press services, and syndicates, and to the individual journalists responsible for the editorial or news policies recognized as a public service. Through these prizes both the donor and Columbia University seek to pay tribute to the service of the press in fostering friendship and sympathetic understanding among the peoples of the Western Hemisphere.

In 1939, first year of the awards, gold medals were given to Dr. Luis Miró Quesada, *El Comercio*, Lima, Peru, and José Santos Gollán, *La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, Argentina, and their respective newspapers were awarded the bronze plaques. In 1940, gold medals were given to the late Agustín Edwards, *El Mercurio*, Santiago, Chile; James I. Miller of the United Press Associations, Buenos Aires; Enrique Santos, *El Tiempo*, Bogotá, Colombia; and Rafael Heliodoro Valle of Mexico City, correspondent for fourteen Latin American newspapers, bronze plaques being awarded to *El Mercurio* of Santiago, *El Tiempo* of Bogotá, and the United Press Associations of South America.

New air mail and express service in Brazil

The new Brazilian air line, Navegação Aérea Brasileira, opened on September 6, 1941, direct overland service for mail and

express between Rio de Janeiro and Fortaleza, the capital of the state of Ceará. Stops will be made at Belo Horizonte (Minas Gerais), Bom Jesus de Lapa (Baía) and Petrolina (Pernambuco).

Women vote for first time in Panama

In the elections for the Provincial Councils of Panama, held on October 5, 1941, women cast their first ballots in that country.

The Constitution of January 2, 1941, provides (article 61) that "All male Panamanians over 21 years of age are citizens of the republic. The National Assembly may confer citizenship on Panamanian women over 21 years of age, within the limitations and the requirements of the law; nevertheless, Panamanian women over 21 years may hold executive offices." Article 64 further states that "Suffrage is a right and a duty of all citizens in the exercise of their rights."

The matter of suffrage for women was further elucidated in the election law of July 5, 1941, whose article 2 states, "Panamanian citizens are qualified to vote and to hold office, within the limitations of the Constitution and the law. Panamanian women over 21 years of age who have a university or a vocational, normal, or secondary school diploma, may vote for and be elected as representatives to the Provincial Councils."

The Provincial Councils were established by the 1941 Constitution. They are composed of 10 to 20 members, depending on the population of the Province, and their members hold office for six years. Their duties are to administer the property of the province, under the supervision of the President; to be responsible for provincial funds, under the direction and auditing of the national Comptroller's

Office; to levy taxes, in accordance with the law, on sources untaxed by the nation; and draw up the provincial budget, which must be approved by the President before it can go into effect.

First regional meeting of the International Federation of University Women

The First Regional Meeting of the International Federation of University Women was held at Habana, Cuba, November 20-22, 1941, with Dean Virginia C. Gildersleeve of Barnard College, acting president of the Federation, presiding. American countries which have associations affiliated with the international organization and which sent delegates were Argentina, Brazil, Canada, Mexico, and the United States. Cuba was invited to attend, although not a member, and the three delegates from that country stated that Cuban women expect to organize and join the federation in the near future.

The delegates spent the three days in informal discussions related to the problems of university women in the various countries, and while no formal resolutions were adopted, an agreement was reached on a program for the Americas.

At the meeting it was agreed that more fellowships for women should be created. In many of the countries, a particular problem is the question of residences for women students, for few universities have such campus facilities for either men or women, and increasing student interchange has brought the matter to the fore. One solution suggested was the establishment of student hostels under international auspices.

One difficulty with which an effective program on the exchange of teachers is faced is the differences in the school year between the United States and Latin

America, but the delegates felt that it could be surmounted and the program, now being carried out under government auspices, broadened.

Because there is a need for improvement in the teaching of English, Spanish, and Portuguese throughout the continent, it was considered desirable that language teachers study in a country speaking the tongue in which they specialize, and that this factor be stressed in any plan for teacher exchange.

Another topic discussed was aid to university women from European countries now refugees in this hemisphere. As the conditions in each nation were radically different, it was decided that each national federation should handle the problem in its country as it deemed most advisable.

The organization of associations of university women in American countries where such bodies do not exist will be stimulated, and those groups already organized but not members of the International Federation will be urged to join.

Industrial progress in Argentina

A recent resumé of a decade of statistics on certain Argentine industries reveals an unusual stimulation and development in the manufacture of such various products as cotton, woolen, and silk goods, paper, glass, and chemicals. Shipments abroad have been reduced to a marked extent because of the European war and the result has been increased concentration on production for national consumption.

Cotton manufactures, both yarn and textiles, have prospered greatly. In 1930 there were 6 spinning mills with 60,000 spindles in operation; by 1938 their number had increased to 23 mills with 328,900 spindles. Cotton textile factories totaled 21 in 1930, with 2,900 looms and a total production of 17,637,000 pounds; in 1938

they numbered 64, with 5,314 looms and a total production of 44,092,000 pounds.

At the present time nearly all woolen materials used in the country are nationally manufactured. There are 26 spinning mills and 70 textile factories that produce annually approximately 11,000 tons of yarn and 12,000 tons of fabrics. There are also 22 wool-washing establishments in the republic.

In 1934 national production of silk fabrics amounted to only about one-fourth of total consumption, whereas two years later all but about 3 percent of total requirements were nationally produced. Both the silk weaving and the artificial silk yarn industries have continued to develop since that time.

Another important fabric industry is the manufacture of the sacking used for bags for Argentina's great grain harvests. Some 20 factories are engaged in this work. Their output in 1937 totaled 194,000,000 bags.

The printing industry in Argentina involves an enormous annual consumption of paper and cardboard; in fact, only in the United States, Great Britain, and Australia does annual paper consumption, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, exceed that of Argentina. By 1938 paper manufactures in Argentina had already reached imposing figures, for during that year the industry used 92,594,000 pounds of straw cellulose, 30,865,000 pounds of wood pulp, 136,687,000 pounds of scrap paper, and 2,205,000 pounds of old rags. Total paper production in that year was 220,462,200 pounds, valued at 29,000,000 pesos. With imports of paper and newsprint cut down since the outbreak of the war, national production has received a tremendous impulse.

In the chemical industrial field, one of the chief national activities is the manufac-

ture of soap. Argentina has approximately 300 factories that produce various types of soap. Total production in 1937 amounted to 235,895,000 pounds.

There are 38 factories engaged in the manufacture of glass. The materials used in this industry are about 80 percent nationally produced and the annual value of production is about 18 million pesos.

Chilean industrial progress

Some interesting data on industries in Chile have been compiled and published by the Chilean General Statistical Office. Covering the five-year period 1936-40, the data show a general rise of no small proportions in capital investments, production, and sales.

For comparative purposes a general index of production and sales was set up, using, as the basis of 100, the monthly and annual average figures during the period 1927-29. The following annual indexes, compiled for 124 industrial establishments and 7 gas and 17 electric power plants, speak for themselves:

Year	Production	Sales
1936.....	144.5	146.9
1937.....	153.4	155.1
1938.....	159.6	159.1
1939.....	158.4	165.6
1940.....	175.8	178.4

The slight decrease in production in 1939 was more than made up in 1940, when the index registered 17.4 points higher than the previous year, and the index for both production and sales increased from 1936 to 1940 by more than 21 percent. It must be remembered that the number of firms used in calculating these indexes is not the total number now in operation in Chile. However, in some of the more important industries, such as cement, newsprint and writing paper, beer, matches,

sugar, and tobacco, the figures given may safely be considered as representing practically the total production of the country.

When actual production figures for the various industries included in the general index are examined, the following comparisons between the years 1939 and 1940 are disclosed:

The production of coke increased from 85,030 to 96,500 tons; cement, from 8,017,700 sacks of approximately 94 pounds each to 9,060,900; glassware of all kinds, from 7,392 to 12,095 tons. The number of boxes of matches (of 1,440 each) rose from 124,040 to 150,290; soap production went up from 9,250 to 9,500 tons; woolen yarn increased from 781,000 to 905,500 pounds; and woolen fabrics from 3,543,750 yards to 4,327,800 yards, or, in other terms, enough woolen cloth was woven to stretch along the entire 2,000-mile length of the present German-Russian front and nearly 500 miles beyond. The output of printing and writing paper increased from 14,600 to 20,400 tons and of wrapping paper from 12,965 to 14,650 tons. Cardboard registered a small decrease in production, with 3,580 tons in 1939 and 3,470 in 1940. The 6 sugar mills for which data are published increased their production from 133,300 tons to 136,640. Breweries made 18,036,000 gallons of beer in 1939 and 20,614,000 gallons in 1940. Cigarette production increased from 386,400,000 packages of 10 each to 417,300,000 packages, and the number of packets of smoking tobacco increased from 6,428,000 to 8,552,000. The manufacture of cigars decreased slightly in 1940, with a total production of 4,996,400, as compared to 5,610,350 in

the previous year. The output of 40 shoe factories increased from 3,136,000 to 4,880,200 pairs of men's, women's, and children's shoes.

Data on the electric power furnished by 17 plants reveal that their production rose from 509,353,000 kilowatt hours in 1939 to 569,806,000 in 1940, while the 7 gas plants increased their production from 3,037 million to 3,419 million cubic feet.

From these figures it can be seen that the increase in production between 1939 and 1940 was general in all lines, with but two exceptions, cardboard and cigars, in which the decreases were approximately 3 percent and 11 percent, respectively.

Insofar as the number of persons employed and their salaries and wages are concerned, statistics for 1939, the latest available, show that in that year 3,692 industrial establishments gave employment to 11,321 salaried employees and 96,207 wage earners, who received 164 million pesos and 434 million pesos in salaries and wages, respectively.

Raw materials used by the same 3,692 establishments in 1939 were valued at 2,496,000,000 pesos, of which 1,593,000,000, or 63.8 percent, were nationally produced. Capital investments in industry in 1939 totaled 3,507,323,000 pesos, an increase of 410,419,000 pesos over the previous year.

Naturally the value of industrial production has been keeping pace with the increased output, as shown by the following data, the latest available at the present time:

	<i>Pesos</i>
1937.....	3, 440, 549, 000
1938.....	4, 188, 305, 000
1939.....	4, 404, 377, 000

—D. M. T.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now nearly 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



Special Number for Pan
American Day, April 14

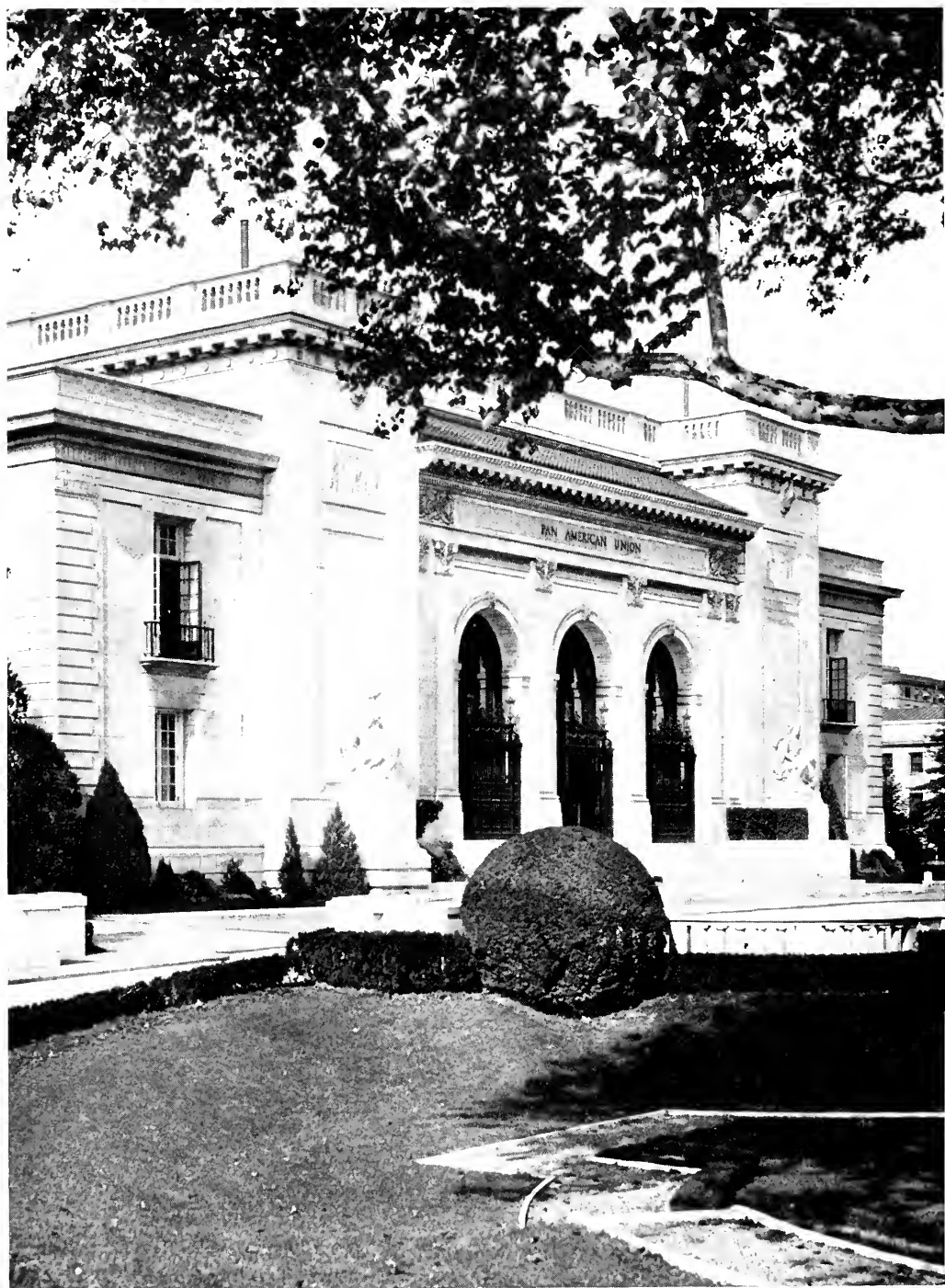
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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: PATIO, PAN AMERICAN UNION





THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON, D. C.

"This building is a confession of faith, a covenant of fraternal duty, a declaration of allegiance to an ideal."—ELIHU ROOT

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXXVI, No. 2



FEBRUARY 1942

Pan American Day

Foreword

L. S. ROWE

Director General, Pan American Union

THIS issue of the BULLETIN is dedicated to the observance of Pan American Day, April 14, the anniversary of the foundation of the Pan American Union in 1890, at the First International Conference of American States. In the fifty-two years that have elapsed since that time the American Republics have sent their representatives to meet in seven more such conferences and in many others of a special character, the latest of which is the momentous Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, which will have convened in Rio de Janeiro before this is read. The plenary sessions will be held in Tiradentes Palace, named in honor of an early champion of Brazilian independence.

As a result of the inter-American conferences we have witnessed the development of a continental system firmly based upon the spirit of justice, fair dealing and respect for law.

This system involves the following principles:

1. Collective responsibility for the preservation of the peace of the Continent.
2. Collective action in case of a threat from without.
3. Nonintervention of one republic in the internal affairs of another.
4. Prohibition of the use of force as an instrument of national policy.
5. Observance of the pledged word and faithful fulfillment of treaty obligations.

In the present hour of crisis the American republics and their citizens, young and old, find inspiration and support in these principles, the outgrowth of their experience, moral convictions and voluntary association. A phrase from the Declaration of Lima well summarizes the considered stand of the American nations: "They seek and defend the peace of the continent and work together in the cause of universal concord."

The Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

Program

As announced in the January 1942 issue of the BULLETIN, the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics held its opening session in Rio de Janeiro on January 15, at the suggestion of the governments of Chile and the United States.

The Meeting was requested in accordance with the provisions of a declaration entitled *Reciprocal Assistance and Cooperation for the Defense of the Nations of the Americas*, adopted at the Second Meeting held in Habana during July 1940. The declaration states:

Any attempt on the part of a non-American State against the integrity or inviolability of the territory, the sovereignty or the political independence of an American State shall be considered as an act of aggression against the States which sign this declaration.

In case acts of aggression are committed or should there be reason to believe that an act of aggression is being prepared by a non-American nation against the integrity or inviolability of the territory, the sovereignty or the political independence of an American nation, the nations signatory to the present declaration will consult among themselves in order to agree upon the measures it may be advisable to take.

On December 17, 1941, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, after a study of suggestions received from the governments, members of the Union, adopted the program for the Third Meeting. It was agreed that the observations and suggestions of the governments relative

to the program should be transmitted to the Meeting for the information of the delegates.

The program is as follows:

I

THE PROTECTION OF THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE

Consideration of measures to be taken with a view to the preservation of the sovereignty and territorial integrity of the American Republics:

A. The examination of measures to curb alien activities carried on within the jurisdiction of any American Republic that tend to endanger the peace and security of any American Republic, including the exchange of information regarding the presence in the American Republics of undesirable aliens.

B. The consideration of measures which might be undertaken by the American Republics now for the development of certain common objectives and plans which would contribute to the reconstruction of world order.

II

ECONOMIC SOLIDARITY

The consideration of measures to be taken with a view to fortifying the economic solidarity of the American Republics, including

1. The control of exports in order to conserve basic and strategic materials.

2. Arrangements for the increased production of strategic materials.

3. Arrangements for furnishing to each country the imports essential to the maintenance of its domestic economy.

4. The maintenance of adequate shipping facilities.

5. The control of alien financial and commercial activities prejudicial to the welfare of the American Republics.

Projects in Inter-American Agricultural Cooperation

E. N. BRESSMAN

Director, Division of Agriculture, Office of Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs

THE need for developing closer economic, political, and cultural ties between the Americas was emphasized in April 1940 in an article by the then Secretary of Agriculture, now Vice President, Henry A. Wallace, entitled *Inter-American Agricultural Cooperation*, which appeared in the issue of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union commemorative of the Fiftieth Anniversary of that institution. The article stressed the importance of agriculture's role in the cooperative program and indicated that there was a great need for commodity collaboration in the Western Hemisphere with regard to important surplus crops like corn, wheat, cotton, and coffee. Such collaboration on a world scale had already been tried and proved effective in the case of such products as tin, rubber, and sugar.

In addition to commodity collaboration on surplus crops, Mr. Wallace mentioned the necessity for cooperation in the production of complementary products, such as rubber, quinine, bananas, cocoa, coarse wool, abacá, vegetable oils, drugs, perfumes, flavoring extracts, herbs, tea, and many tropical fruits, in order to give Latin American countries greater purchasing power by developing a wider basis of complementary trade between them and the United States.

Cooperative projects that had already been undertaken included exploratory agricultural surveys conducted by the Department of Agriculture in Haiti, Paraguay, Ecuador, and Colombia, at the

request of the governments of those countries. Also, much cooperative work was under way in connection with advising on marketing problems and, in the scientific field, collecting and identifying insects affecting commercial agricultural crops and advising as to crop- and animal-disease control.

Here it is proposed to point out some of the concrete projects undertaken in the field of inter-American agricultural cooperation in the nearly two years that have passed since Mr. Wallace's broad statement of the need for such action—important steps toward the development of closer ties, increased trade, and stronger economies in this hemisphere.

First in importance among these steps, in my opinion, was the creation of the Haitian-American Agricultural Development Corporation, or Société Haïtiano-Américaine de Développement Agricole, as it is known in Haiti. The State Department, in a press release issued on May 5, 1941, announced: "In an endeavor to decrease the present total dependence of the United States upon . . . distant areas . . . for essential rubber supplies, the American Government and the Government of Haiti have reached a new long-term agreement for the development of agriculture. . . ."

The negotiations with the State Department and the Export-Import Bank that had led to this development were participated in by Thomas A. Fennell, Agricultural Advisor to the Haitian Government and

now President of the Société Haïtiano-Américaine de Développement Agricole, His Excellency Élie Lescot, then newly elected President of Haiti, and the writer, as Assistant Director of the Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, United States Department of Agriculture.

President Lescot, in the July 1941 issue of *Agriculture in the Americas*, a publication of the United States Department of Agriculture, made the following statement in regard to the program to be carried out under this agreement in his country:

When I returned to Port-au-Prince early in May to assume the office of President . . . I was able to bring word to the people of Haiti of one of the most far-reaching economic steps in our national history. I was able to tell them that the farmers of Haiti . . . were henceforth to enjoy the fullest possible degree of agricultural cooperation with the United States. The long-term program announced jointly by our two Governments on May 6, 1941, will affect most of the agricultural products that can be grown in Haiti. We shall become less dependent on the few staple crops that have long formed the basis of our economy. Henceforth we shall produce more of the deficit products of the Western Hemisphere, which are now imported from distant lands. . . . We have a potentially large market for the manufactured goods and the processed agricultural products of the United States. We are buying now only a small fraction of the clothing, the machinery, the flour, and the lard that we would use if we could afford them. But we have more than a market to offer. We have the friendship and good will of 3,000,000 souls who love freedom so much that they would die to defend it—as their ancestors died in the war for Haitian independence. . . . We are proud of our role in showing the world that the Good Neighbor Policy means Democracy in Action.

For some months prior to the reaching of the agreement for this cooperative project, the United States Department of Agriculture, through surveys and experimental plantings in Latin America, had been laying the groundwork for actual rubber production in every country in tropical America. A central rubber exper-

iment station had been established in Costa Rica, and propagation and breeding stations in Honduras and Haiti. The Haitian agricultural expansion plan, of which rubber is the keystone, developed as a result of the Department's rubber project.

Briefly, this plan is as follows: The Corporation is to plant rubber trees. It is also to try to eliminate plant diseases and irregularity of yields that make difficult the production of such tropical crops as oils, spices, and fibers, for which the Western Hemisphere heretofore has depended on distant sources of supply. The United States is to furnish the technical skill and the capital for this expansion. The immediate objective of the organization, as set forth by its president, Thomas A. Fennell, in an article entitled *Haiti Makes Rubber History*, in the July 1941 issue of *Agriculture in the Americas*, is the establishment of plantations to serve as nuclei from which peasant plantings of tropical crops will spread.

At the present time Haitian farmers concentrate their production on a few staple crops, such as coffee, cotton, sugar, and bananas. These products are often subject to depressed prices on world markets. The new plan is designed to direct a considerable part of their efforts toward the production of new tropical crops now scarcely known in Haiti. Valuable spice, drug, oil, and fiber products are regarded as having real commercial possibilities.

The new program, as Mr. Fennell points out, is in no way intended to alter the present pattern of land ownership in Haiti, which is essentially a country of small peasant-owned farms. In this connection he says:

Women work on the farms just as men do. Whole families clear and till the land, harvest the crops, and transport them to market. That system is the foundation of the whole Haitian way

of living, and any program that would tend to alter it would be doing Haiti a disservice. . . . For a long time all of us were victims of the generally accepted fallacy that rubber production is necessarily the province of the large corporation, not suited to the practices of the small land holder. That notion has done much to limit the cultivation of rubber in the American tropics. . . . Small holders not only can cultivate rubber but can produce it in competition with large holders to greater advantage than perhaps any other tropical crop. That thesis is fundamental to the whole program for the agricultural expansion of Haiti. Under the Corporation's plan of operation, contracts will be entered into with the peasants for the production of rubber, cacao, and other products which it is desired to encourage. The Corporation will furnish seed, provide technical supervision and assistance, and agree to purchase the crops after they are harvested. Its land holdings will be limited to its central plantations, which will be used largely for demonstration and experimental purposes. All agricultural labor

to be used on the plantations will be recruited in Haiti. . . .

So far as the United States is concerned, it also stands to gain from the cooperative endeavor. Only crops that are noncompetitive with United States agriculture will be grown. All of them are imported in large quantities from the Far East. If the plan is realized in full, a final planting of nearly 70,000 acres of high-producing strains of *Hevea* trees will result. This amount of rubber—nearly 35,000 tons per year after the plantings reach full production—represents more than 5 percent of total United States rubber consumption in a normal year The entire Western Hemisphere will benefit greatly, I believe, from this experiment in agricultural cooperation between two sister American Republics. What can be done quickly in Haiti, because of the country's small size, can in the long run be done in many another Latin American country.

The supervising agency for the new program, the Société Haïtienne-Américaine de



RURAL HAITI

The Haitian-American Development Corporation is promoting in Haiti the growing of rubber and other crops complementary to and not competitive with United States products.

Développement Agricole, is an organization formed through cooperation of the Governments of Haiti and the United States. Under its charter, this organization is authorized to carry on a business whose purpose is to foster agricultural and craft enterprises in Haiti. It may grow, process, and buy and sell for local and export markets nearly all types of agricultural products.

The organization of the Société Haïtiano-Américaine de Développement Agricole has been designed to facilitate the greatest possible cooperation between governmental and private entities. If we look at the matter realistically, it is evident that there are certain things that can best be undertaken by government. On the other hand, only a form of organization that leaves open adequate opportunities for the exercise of private initiative can expect to obtain the maximum results.

From the Haitian point of view, money spent for the development of this project will help ease the country's present financial crisis just as much as if it were spent on a public works project. In addition, since the expenditure will be for producing plantations, it is expected that the investment will soon begin to bring returns and that the jobs created will be permanent and grow in number and value. It is believed that if this one project alone can be carried out, the national income of Haiti can be more than doubled.

The creation of this organization is important not only because of its significance in Haiti but because, as pointed out by Mr. Fennell, it may serve as a pattern for similar agricultural development in the other American republics—possibly in as many as half.

Another development of major importance was the planning of a project to establish an Institute of Tropical Agriculture—a project that was merely a long-cherished

idea, dating from the First Inter-American Conference on Agriculture in 1930, at the time that Mr. Wallace's article on *Inter-American Agricultural Cooperation* appeared in this BULLETIN. In closing that article, he said:

Finally, one project that looms large in plans for future inter-American agricultural cooperation is the proposed Institute of Tropical Agriculture, which would be established with private funds in a Latin American Republic. It is hoped that our Government can help initiate this project, cooperate in maintaining it, and furnish some of the technical specialists. . . .

In a press release issued September 26, 1941, Nelson A. Rockefeller, Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, announced the setting up in his office of an Agricultural Division whose primary objective was to be the establishment and operation of the Institute. Mr. Rockefeller said:

The present emergency has greatly increased the need for agricultural cooperation in the Western Hemisphere. In order to meet this need, the Agricultural Division has been created in the Office of Inter-American Affairs. The new Division will be concerned primarily with the establishment of a Tropical Institute to be located in one of the other American Republics. . . . This project was first publicly announced by Vice President Wallace, as Secretary of Agriculture, when he outlined its objectives as follows to the Eighth American Scientific Congress held in Washington in May 1940: "Promotion of a better balanced agricultural economy in the Western Hemisphere; preparation of comprehensive data on the agricultural problems of the American republics; development of a broad knowledge of tropical agricultural pests and diseases; solution of serious problems in crop and animal production; and creation of understanding among future agricultural leaders of the Americas."

This new Agricultural Division, of which I am Director, has on its administrative staff, as Assistant Director, Atherton Lee, who for seven years has been director of the Federal Agricultural Experiment Station at Mayagüez, Puerto Rico, and as Senior Agronomist, Robert A. Nichols, who for the past seven years has been



Photo by Stadelman, U. S. D. A.

A BANANA PLANTATION

Bananas are an important item in inter-American trade. The Caribbean countries send many to the United States, and Argentina purchases a considerable number from Brazil.

Director of the Agricultural Experiment Station at Saint Thomas, Virgin Islands.

Preliminary planning for the Institute was done by the Inter-American Committee on Tropical Agriculture, appointed by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union and headed by Dr. Héctor David Castro, Minister to the United States from the Republic of El Salvador. The membership includes also representatives of Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Peru, Venezuela, and the United States.¹

It is significant that this Institute has the endorsement and support of three important committees—the Interdepartmental Committee on Cooperation with the Other

American Republics, the Inter-American Committee on Tropical Agriculture, and the Advisory Committee on Inter-American Cooperation in Agricultural Education.

Last August a party of scientists from the United States Department of Agriculture was sent to the Tropics to inspect sites offered for the Institute. This survey party was headed by Ralph H. Allee, agricultural education specialist of the Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, and included George R. Boyd, Principal Engineer, Bureau of Agricultural Chemistry and Engineering, and Dr. Wilson Popenoe of Antigua, Guatemala, Collaborator of the Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations. They inspected, from the standpoint of suitability for tropical agricultural research and education, proposed Institute

¹The Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union serves as the Secretariat of the Organizing Committee.—EDITOR.

sites offered by the Governments of Venezuela, Brazil, Ecuador, Costa Rica, and El Salvador. Local agricultural technicians assisted them in each of these countries. It is planned to send a second mission to survey additional sites in countries that subsequently submitted concrete offers of locations.

The Advisory Committee on Inter-American Cooperation in Agricultural Education, of which Knowles A. Ryerson, of the California College of Agriculture, is chairman, and I am secretary, devoted one entire session of its conference held in Washington, D. C., on November 13 and 14, 1941, to a discussion of the Institute of Tropical Agriculture. In the course of this discussion, the development and introduction of tropical complementary products to help create a more balanced economy in the hemisphere was recognized as closely related to increasing the supply of living necessities available to the peoples of the Americas. Various suggestions were made relating to the functioning of the Institute as a force toward a more stable and mutually beneficial economy, as well as toward a more satisfying social situation.

Recognizing the necessity of collaborating on problems that can be better solved by all the American republics working together than by any one of them working alone, we are obviously faced with the necessity of delimiting the field of activities envisaged for the Institute. The collection and analysis of data would have to proceed in conjunction with various exploratory projects for which evidence already exists. The procedure of "learning about by working with" tends to keep surveys of conditions down to earth and at the same time to minimize the development of programs without sound factual bases. Thus, general management and enterprise studies of actual farming operations would, wherever possible, accompany biological research.

Furthermore, these would be related to studies of group relations made as part of rural social organization programs. The general process can be summarized as involving orientation, exploration, experimentation, demonstration, and integration.

Consideration of geographic factors determining plant and animal development is important. Study of the hemisphere as an ecological entity with physical, biological, and social aspects indicates a broad scheme for determining direction of emphasis. There appears to be no need to await the results of studies of the place of each individual country or geographical zone in the hemisphere picture or the exact function of the tropical American areas in world economy. A "master plan," if such is feasible, would necessarily grow out of the energetic prosecution of individual projects founded on the best information available and carried out in a spirit of exploration and experimentation.

Many apparently envisage the Tropical Institute as an organizing center. As such, it would attempt to determine *where* a given piece of work should be carried on rather than *how*. This would imply a traffic-managing and standardizing institution concerned with determining what research and leadership training is required and which of the existing institutions and agencies can best carry out the various jobs indicated. This is an attractive possibility and again suggests a direction in which activities could develop.

If the Institute is to assure an economic base for cultural activities, it will have to distribute its effectiveness over the tropical area. An academic island isolated from the varying problems of the respective tropical regions would be just another institution. It would have little opportunity to supply the continuity of effort that is urgently required or to relate technical discoveries to desirable changes in human

relationships. However, such a position will have to be won through the effectiveness of the program developed. To expect the Institute to establish itself through abstract endeavors would be largely visionary and would invite failure. An adequate physical plant and a concrete program of research and personnel training is essential to the creation of that *esprit de corps* which will carry the Institute through its formative days. Those who suggest initiating the Institute purely as a Board of Regents or a degree-granting and standardizing institution such as the University of London should study the respective conditions under which the University of the State of New York and the University of London were founded and the trend in their relationships to education.

Various program suggestions of a more or less specific nature that were made by members of the Committee in connection with the Institute involved the following:

Coordination of activities of the alumni of North American agricultural colleges in Latin America.

Coordination of the program of student exchange (selection of candidates, the supplying of information on background of students, assistance to educational institutions in serving students, follow-up of students after their school experience).

Preparation of students for work in the tropics.

Encouragement of complementary rather than competitive crops in the tropics.

Collection and creation of materials of instruction and reference tools (preparation of reference works in Spanish and Portuguese, collection of standard works on tropical agriculture, provision of reference service with printed materials and biblio-film).

Development of a central base for special surveys and studies, such as an inventory of forest resources, the control of diseases and insect pests of plants and animals, the breeding of the new and better varieties, and the economics of production and consumption.

Training of personnel for Latin American agricultural schools, experiment stations, and other government services.

Coordination of extension of technical information to areas of need.

Assistance in the organization and administration of extension systems, experiment stations, and vocational schools.

Coordination of health activities (training of laboratory technicians, training of sanitation inspectors, development of programs involving domestic water supplies, waste disposal, insect control).

Investigation of home welfare needs and program possibilities (home sanitation, home management, nutrition).

The Advisory Committee on Inter-American Cooperation in Agricultural Education took important action with regard to the Institute. It resolved:

1. To commend the work accomplished and the report submitted by the special mission that visited the alternative sites for the Institute of Tropical Agriculture.

2. To approve the idea of an "Inter-American Institute for Research and Education," primarily agricultural in its interests, for the administration of the Institute of Tropical Agriculture and for any related institutes, with the usual safeguards provided in the Civil Service laws and regulations and the method of settlement and adjustment pursuant to the procedure of the General Accounting Office. The Committee emphasizes that the motivating interest insofar as it is concerned should be that of agriculture, in view of the fact that this constitutes the means of livelihood for such a large proportion of the population of the Americas.

Organizations such as the aforementioned Société Haïtiano-Américaine de Développement Agricole will be closely interrelated with the Institute. As these organizations are developed, they will call upon the Institute to furnish keen young scientists and research workers from all the American republics. Then, as the Institute solves research problems in connection with tropical agricultural crops of which it is desired to develop production, and outlets are needed for these products, they can turn to the development organizations to create them, in the event they cannot be furnished by private industry.



Photo by Stadelman, U. S. D. A.

CASTILLOA ELASTICA

Members of the Rubber Survey sent to Latin America by the United States Department of Agriculture found that this rubber-yielding tree occurs frequently in Central America.

Because of the relatively greater importance in the program of cooperation with the other American republics of the Société Haïtiano-Américaine de Développement Agricole and the Institute of Tropical Agriculture, I have discussed them more in detail than I propose to discuss the following specific projects that have also been undertaken:

A survey of rubber-producing possibilities in tropical American countries by the United States Department of Agriculture was begun in July 1940, under an appropriation of \$500,000 authorized by the United States Congress and with the cooperation of the Latin American republics involved. A number of parties were sent into the field, with the understanding

that the results of their rubber surveys and the ensuing experimental work would be available to any American republic and to both large and small growers. This survey work, now completed, was done under the able direction of Dr. E. W. Brandes of the Bureau of Plant Industry of the United States Department of Agriculture, and he is responsible for the enormous task of shaping up and integrating the individual reports made by the survey parties on their findings in the various countries. This rubber research effort has met with enthusiastic support from the other American republics. They have to date collectively appropriated for such research in their countries an amount equal to that appropriated by the United States Congress for this kind of work. These surveys have resulted in the establishment of centers for rubber research in Turrialba, Costa Rica, and Jérémie, Haiti, and nurseries for growing large numbers of rubber seedlings in practically all the other tropical American countries. The most encouraging result has been that practically all the rubber-producing countries in Latin America have made informal agreements to collaborate in rubber research, and actual production of rubber is now being developed, as in Haiti under the project previously explained.

All agricultural phases of the surveys made by the most important technical missions sent to the other American republics to assist them in their agricultural programs have been under the direction of the Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations of the United States Department of Agriculture.

The governments of Bolivia and the United States have agreed on a comprehensive long-term plan for collaboration to foster continued mutually beneficial economic relations between the two countries and to develop the national economy and

resources of Bolivia. As the first step in this program of collaboration, a mission was recently sent to Bolivia to make a thorough technological and economic survey of the communications needs and the agricultural and mineral potentialities of that country. The head of this Economic and Resources Mission is Merwin L. Bohan, formerly Commercial Attaché at Bogotá, Colombia, who made an exploratory survey in Bolivia in 1937. He is assisted by Rex Pixley, formerly Assistant Fiscal Adviser to the Haitian Government, and a party of six technicians. It is hoped that the findings of the mission will be translated into actual developmental operations to fit the needs of Bolivia.

At the request of the Governments of Mexico and Honduras, H. T. Edwards and J. H. Kempton, tropical plant specialists of the United States Department of Agriculture, last summer conducted a survey in those countries to investigate possibilities of developing complementary agricultural products. Important crops whose possibilities were investigated included: abacá, imported from the Philippines for manufacturing rope; cinchona, imported from the East Indies for the manufacture of quinine; chia, imported from China for manufacture of oil used in the paint and varnish industry; derris, imported from the East Indies for use in insecticides; kapok, imported from the East Indies and used in upholstery and in life preservers; and licorice, imported from Asia Minor and used in the manufacture of chewing tobacco.

Two specialists of the Bureau of Plant Industry of the Department of Agriculture, B. Y. Morrison and B. B. Robinson, left in August 1941 at the request of the Peruvian Government, to participate in a general exploratory survey of the agricultural resources of Peru. In Lima they were joined by the third member of the

survey party, Francis H. Thurber of the Bureau of Agricultural Chemistry and Engineering of the same Department, who had been in Latin America for several weeks, making a survey of technical methods used in processing agricultural products in Argentina, Brazil, and Chile. It was the purpose of Mr. Morrison, who is in charge of the Division of Plant Exploration and Introduction of his Bureau and who headed the survey party, to advise on crop plants, including medicinal and drug plants, while Doctor Robinson was assigned to specialize in fiber flax production and processing, and Doctor Thurber in technical processes.

A detailed survey of Ecuadorean agriculture got under way in September 1941 with the sending of the first two members of a mission to study the agriculture of that country and to formulate, in cooperation with the Ecuadorean Government, a pro-



Photo by Stadelman, U. S. D. A.

KAPOK IN FRUIT AND FLOWER

The fiber produced by this tree is excellent as insulation, upholstery, and filling for life-preservers.



Courtesy of United Fruit Co.

MANILA HEMP, OR ABACA

Since Manila hemp preserves its tensile strength while wet, no substitute equals it for marine cordage. It comes from a plant closely related to the banana.

gram of agricultural diversification with special emphasis on crops for which there is normally a good demand in the export market. Ernest G. Holt, chief of the Biology Division of the Soil Conservation Service, heads the mission and is assisted by six other agricultural technicians.

The United States Department of Agriculture, at the request of the Ecuadorean Government, had made preliminary surveys of rubber-growing possibilities and general agricultural production in that country, and as a result an Ecuadorean agricultural experiment station program was established under the direction of Dr. Arthur G. Kevorkian, formerly of the Department. The sending of the latest mission was another result of those surveys.

This mission plans to give attention to crop and livestock production; the nation's dependence on exports and imports; soil types; climatic conditions; and other factors affecting its agricultural economy. Specific items for consideration will be the development of plantation rubber production; the rehabilitation of the production of high-quality cacao, of which Ecuador was once the world's leading producer; and the production for export of coarse wools, which the United States imports.

At the request of the Cuban Government, a technical mission from the United States Department of Agriculture, under the leadership of G. Laguardia, as Principal Agricultural Economist of the Sugar Division, made during January and

March 1941 a tour of investigation in connection with a proposed program of public works and general reconstruction. The mission examined and reported on the practicability of projects designed to promote the diversification and rehabilitation of Cuban agriculture.

A project to establish an Inter-American Agricultural and Mineral Technical Advisory Service is just being gotten under way. Technical assistants are to be made available to the agricultural and mining agencies of the other American republics: (1) to assist such agencies in their present operations and advise in regard to effecting their improvement; (2) to report upon the agricultural and mineral resources of those republics with special reference to increasing production and exports of raw materials; and (3) to collaborate with the Inter-American Development Commission, a body created by the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee (established by the First Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Panama in 1939), in projects to develop production of commodities for which there is a new or complementary market in the United States or the other American republics. It is felt that the scale on which this is being conducted, involving as it does a much larger number of technical assistants than any previous project in the program, will provide a better basis for determining the effectiveness of this type of cooperation with the other American republics.

Another development in the field of inter-American relations was the organization of the American Society of Agricultural Sciences, established in response to a recommendation of the Eighth American Scientific Congress, which met in May 1940 in Washington, D. C. The Society was organized by Scientific Congress delegates from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Co-

lombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Ecuador, Peru, the Dominican Republic, Uruguay, Venezuela, and the United States. Its aims are to advance scientific agriculture in the republics through individual and collective effort; to provide a central organization for the coordination of the agricultural sciences; to hold meetings, issue publications, and otherwise disseminate information; to provide for exchange of research findings, ideas, and experiences among members; and to promote friendship among workers in agricultural sciences in the American Republics. While there were agricultural societies in each of the American countries prior to the formation of this Society, there was no central organiza-



THE VANILLA PLANT

The slender pods containing vanilla beans may be noted hanging from the broad-leaved vine, a member of the orchid family native to Mexico.

tion for discussion of mutual agricultural problems.

In the educational field, aside from the Institute of Tropical Agriculture previously discussed, various programs for the training of technicians in agencies of the United States should be mentioned. Under three such programs, trainees are now working and studying in the Rural Electrification Administration, others are soon to be here in the Soil Conservation Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, and some chemists from Argentina are on their way to study in the Department's four great regional laboratories for research on the industrial uses of surplus agricultural products. At the present writing, 50 seniors and professors from one of the best

agricultural colleges in South America are visiting our agricultural institutions.

Also in the category of educational projects were the Latin-American fiestas and exhibits held during the past year at Greenfield, Iowa, and other towns in the Middle West. They were designed to bring to rural people, through simple extension methods, some realization of and interest in the problems in our inter-American relationships. These affairs, which were in the nature of experiments to determine the possibilities in visual education methods in rural areas, proved eminently successful. Over a quarter of a million people have viewed the exhibits and, in addition, thousands of farm folks have participated in the fiestas.

By Automobile from the Caribbean to the Strait of Magellan

HERBERT C. LANKS

How would you like to make an automobile tour the length of South America, through deserts, jungles, and plains, and many times across the mighty Andes? After five months, Major Paul Pleiss and I finally succeeded in being the first American motorists to drive a car from the Caribbean Sea to the Strait of Magellan, almost at the tip of the South American continent. We used a standard model station-wagon type of automobile, with an extra gasoline tank built into it, and we camped out most of the way except when we came to the larger cities.

This amazing trip carried us over 13,000

miles down the west coast and up the east coast of South America. We crossed every republic and visited every capital with the exception of Paraguay and its capital, Asunción. Down toward the tip of the continent we traversed desolate Patagonia for thousands of miles, for days encountering no town and following mere tracks across the barren wind-swept pampa.

We unloaded our car at the port of La Guaira, a short distance from Caracas, Venezuela, our first South American capital. From here we continued some 1,100 miles over the famous Simón Bolívar

Highway to Bogotá, the capital of Colombia. This is a spectacular route connecting the Caribbean and the Pacific, for it continues through Quito to Guayaquil, Ecuador. At first the Highway goes through both fertile and arid country in Venezuela, and then begins the ascent into the Andes as it approaches Colombia. Here it surmounts the cold, desolate paramos, those passes and high plains above timber line which are almost entirely devoid of vegetation. At this 14,000-foot altitude both the car and our bodies felt the effects of the lack of oxygen. We were short of breath if we engaged in the slightest exertion and the car lost up to a third of its power.

These were not paved highways we

traveled, although the Simón Bolívar Highway is surfaced with crushed stone so that most of it can be traveled at nearly any season of the year. However, the dust in January is terrific, and since the road is not very wide and winds constantly after reaching the mountains, it is very difficult to pass the many trucks and buses that make use of this route. The road is continually ascending or descending or going around curves so that the scenery never becomes monotonous. Along the way are many villages.

Whereas Venezuela is only partly mountainous, in Colombia the Andes divide into three ranges that cover a large part of the country. Between the Venezuelan border and Bogotá the road runs at a



Photograph by Herbert C. Lanks

ZIGZAGGING THROUGH THE VENEZUELAN MOUNTAINS

On the 1,100-mile stretch of the Simón Bolívar Highway between Caracas and Bogotá hardly ten miles are straight.



Photograph by Herbert C. Lanka

ON THE WAY FROM QUITO TO GUAYAQUIL

While descending nearly 12,000 feet from the highest point between Quito and the coast, one passes from Andine heights to a zone of tropical heat and luxuriant vegetation.

considerable elevation, seldom less than 8,000 feet above sea level; it is somewhat wider than in Venezuela.

Bogotá, about 8,560 feet high, and rather cold when we were there, is a very modern city in many respects, although it is an old Spanish colonial center. Often called "The Athens of South America," in Humboldt's phrase, it has long been renowned for its culture. After leaving Bogotá the Simón Bolívar Highway continues to ascend to Andean passes whence great panoramas are visible for tremendous distances.

West of Bogotá the road we followed is joined by another coming down from the north, a different section of the Pan American Highway System. It is hoped that eventually a route can be found across the Isthmus of Panama to meet the section traversing Mexico and Central America. Parts of this are still lacking, but it is planned eventually to have a continuous Pan American Highway, all the way from the United States through the republics of North, Central, and South America. The Fourth Pan American Highway Congress held at Mexico City last September entrusted to a technical committee the final selection of the common frontier points in the system that have not yet been fixed. When this great highway is finally completed it will link the capitals of all the mainland republics and be a great monument to Pan American cooperation and concerted action.

Southward through Colombia we followed the wonderful Cauca Valley, one of the richest and most famous in the southern continent. It is a peaceful land of sugarcane, rice, citrus fruit and cattle, tucked away between two ranges of the mighty Andes. As the road approaches the border of Ecuador it rises out of the valley and again climbs high in the Andes through extremely rugged and wild mountain scenery, sometimes descending into

very steep-sided chasms of great depth. In this region it has been found necessary to establish one-way traffic with chains across the road in many places. Beyond one of these a car may not pass until given special written permission by the guard. Before granting this permission he calls his colleague at the next chain by telephone to find out whether the way is clear. Then he tells you just where to be especially careful and allows you a certain amount of time to go through to the next chain. This is repeated time after time, all day long, until nine such chains are passed in one section.

As we neared Ecuador we saw more and more Indians, generally dressed in brightly colored garments, especially in red ponchos. They farm the steep sides of the Andes, making the landscape appear like the pattern of a crazy quilt. Horses trample out the grain on the threshing floors, after which it is tossed up into the wind to let the chaff be blown away.

Quito is still higher than Bogotá, being 9,500 feet above sea level. Eighteen miles north of it, the Highway crosses the equator, a point marked by a monument. Because of the altitude it is not hot there but rather cool. Quito retains much more of the Spanish colonial aspect than Bogotá. It is sometimes called "The City of Churches"; most of them were built in the days of the Spaniards and have interiors and sculptures of surpassing beauty.

In Ecuador we were in the northern lands of the great Inca Empire conquered by the Spaniards under Pizarro. Some of the roads we traversed no doubt follow the routes of the highways for which that empire was noted. Many are still built by Indian laborers in the fashion of centuries ago: that is, a single lane of large stones laid flat in the middle with dirt lanes on both sides. There we saw many towering snow-capped peaks of the Andes,

some of them among the highest in South America after Aconcagua. At places we passed almost beneath them and felt their chilly breath.

On leaving Quito we could not go directly into Peru because part of the Pan American Highway is not completed between Ecuador and its neighbor to the south. So we took one of the most spectacular roads of the whole trip, right from the heart of the Andes down to sea level at Guayaquil. In the heights it is cold, often with snow in the air, but as we descended it became warmer and warmer and the vegetation more and more dense until at length we again arrived in the tropical lowlands, where the air is heavy and warm. At first we passed orange trees, and finally miles and miles of bananas. From Guayaquil we had to be ferried across the gulf of the same name to the border of Peru.

The Peruvian section of the Pan American Highway follows the arid coast of Peru, largely a sandy waste except where oases are formed along the rivers, and is paved most of the way, except in the northern part. These thousand miles constitute the longest paved stretch of the Highway in South America.

Lima, known as "The City of the Kings" because it was founded on Epiphany (1535), is indeed a charming city to visit. Its weather is sunny and delightful in January, February, and March, when the nearby Pacific beaches are popular. It has many avenues of handsome new houses.

We did not continue down the coast from Lima but made a great detour up into the Andes to Cuzco, the seat of the old Inca Empire, and around Lake Titicaca, the highest body of water in the world navigated by a steamship, and on to La



Photograph by Herbert C. Lanks

HARVEST DANCE ON THE SHORE OF LAKE TITICACA

Harvest rites have been celebrated since the dawn of history. Here the whirling, many-hued woolen skirts of the women give an especial picturesqueness to the scene.



Photograph by Herbert C. Lanks

SHEEP IN PATAGONIA

Great sheep farms provide the main occupation in the far south of Chile and Argentina.

Paz. The Carretera Central is the highest highway in the world, surmounting Anticona Pass at 16,127 feet. It is probably also one of the most spectacular roads, and certainly was outstanding on our trip through South America. We crossed high Andine ridges many times and descended into great valleys inhabited formerly by peoples of the ancient Inca Empire and today by their descendants. We saw stupendous archaeological remains of that ancient civilization.

After passing Lake Titicaca, we arrived at the handsome city of La Paz, situated in a great bowl at 12,000 feet elevation: mighty snow-clad Illimani towers above it. Although Sucre is legally the capital of Bolivia, Congress meets in La Paz and the President resides there.

From La Paz we descended to the Pacific

coast once more and rejoined the Pan American Highway System 1,400 miles north of Valparaíso. We drove through the barren nitrate fields in northern Chile, where for hundreds of miles the surface of the desert is covered with this valuable mineral. This was a dry and dusty stretch over very rough roads, so rough that in places we abandoned them for the desert surface itself. This is always passable, for it never rains there. We had to carry reserve supplies not only of gasoline but also of water. Pounding across this terrain necessitated a week's stop for repairs when we finally arrived in Santiago, the capital of Chile.

We liked Santiago especially. It is a charming modern city of beautiful parks and flowers where the people are equally charming. From Santiago the usual route



Photograph by Herbert C. Iauks

THE MIGHTY ANDES

Highways now cross the Andes in a number of places, threading their way up and down from one range to another.

to Argentina is across the cordillera by way of the pass where stands the famous Christ of the Andes. We made an excursion across this spectacular gap in the mountains but returned to Santiago in order to continue into southern Chile and visit the famous lake region.

South of Santiago the roads are much better than in the north, for this is rich farm land. As we went farther into the south temperate zone we were in country very similar to our eastern United States. The many lakes of this region are as beautiful as they are reputed to be. We crossed the Andes for the last time by the Tromén Pass into Argentina. Camping among the lakes on both the Chilean and the Argentina side was one of the most pleasant experiences of the trip.

We skirted the eastern slopes of the Andes as we went southward toward the tip of the continent and then struck across bleak and desolate Patagonia, where the

winds never cease blowing. Old Man Winter was coming hard on our heels as we drove straight over the never-ending pampa where there are no towns and hardly any roads. For most of the time we followed mere tracks across the waste with only occasional flocks of wild ostriches and guanacos to break the monotony along the way. Once in a great while we would strike an isolated *boliche*, or tavern, on the lonely wastes. Finally we turned eastward across the heart of Patagonia and headed for the Atlantic coast. At San Julián we came out to the Atlantic. There we found a better road, which we were able to follow all the way down to the Strait of Magellan. Here at Magallanes we reached our great objective, the city farthest south in the world.

It was April by now, ice was freezing along the roads, winter was pressing us hard, and so we turned around and for the first time our course was towards the



Photograph by Herbert C. Lanks

A CONCRETE HIGHWAY NEAR MONTEVIDEO

The shadows of the plane trees along one of Uruguay's excellent roads are conducive to enjoyment of the pleasant countryside.

Polar Star. It was 2,000 miles over the endless pampa to Buenos Aires, with the road always disappearing into the blue haze of the flat horizon. Around Bahía Blanca the pampa became greener and we entered the great wheat and cattle country of Argentina.

Even a week did not suffice to give us more than a passing glimpse of Buenos Aires, a great city of two and a half million population. From there we ferried across the River Plate to Uruguay, where we encountered both the best and the worst roads of the trip. At first they were all concrete, but toward the northeastern border they were not thus surfaced and became quagmires from unusual rains.

After crossing the boundary, we drove for over 250 miles along the beach that is the highway in southern Brazil; it is much like that at Daytona, Florida.

There are many German immigrants in southern Brazil who keep their German dress and customs. Curitiba, some 50 miles inland, is a most delightful little city, but São Paulo, several hundred miles farther on, is a great metropolis with many skyscrapers. It would remind one of Chicago if it were not for the palms and semi-tropical vegetation. The roads between São Paulo and the capital of Brazil have a hard dirt surface over which one can make almost as good speed as on a paved highway. Thus before long one arrives at Rio de Janeiro, famed the world over for the beauty of its harbor. Here on its wide beaches and in its charming parks and shaded streets we passed a grateful week of rest before we loaded our car on the boat and sailed back to our own country, after five months around South America.



Photograph by Herbert C. Lanks

MOTERING ON THE BEACH IN SOUTHERN BRAZIL

In good weather three hundred miles of beach make an ideal highway.

Some Aspects of Recent Social Legislation in Latin America

IN reviewing some recent aspects of Latin American legislation designed to protect the worker and his family—the hope of the future in every healthy and prosperous country—there come to mind the words of Edgardo Rebagliati, the director of the Peruvian Social Security Fund, at the dedication of the Workers' Hospital in Lima: "It is truly praiseworthy that, while other nations are destroying each other, and their leaders and their people spend their energy and their lives in the fury of war, the leaders and the people of America are maintaining their tradition of concord and vying with each other in an effort to protect their human capital and to improve the well-being of their citizens. As an example of that viewpoint and that philosophy . . . stand the achievements and the projects undertaken by all the nations of the continent to bring about a better and a nobler world."

This paper brings together notes on a few such achievements and projects, most of them belonging to 1941. The first section discusses legislation on working and living conditions, such as the codification of labor legislation; hours of labor; rest periods; measures for the benefit of special classes of workers; the protection of children, mothers, and the family; the settlement of labor disputes; labor inspection; and colonization programs. The second section, devoted to social welfare, touches on social security, workers' hous-

ing, industrial hygiene, and safety measures, price control, and the cooperative movement.

Working and living conditions

CODIFICATION OF LABOR LEGISLATION.—A Panamanian law of July 28, 1941, combined in one measure various provisions, formerly scattered in different legislation dealing with labor contracts, working conditions (hours, weekly rest, annual vacations, wages), the work of women and children, industrial disputes, and responsibility and compensation for certain occupational risks.

HOURS OF LABOR AND REST PERIODS.—Recent legislation in El Salvador limits to 8 hours the working day of employees in commercial establishments, and provides for weekly rest in certain of these establishments in the city of San Salvador from one p. m. on Saturday to midnight on Sunday. (July 31, 1941.)

Sunday closing has been made compulsory in Panama for commercial and industrial establishments in cities of more than 15,000 inhabitants. (March 27, 1941.)

The working day of passenger bus drivers in Peru was limited to 8 hours by recent legislation. (September 23, 1941.)

PROTECTION OF SPECIAL CLASSES OF WORKERS.—Much legislation enacted in 1941 applies to workers who, because of the special type of work they do, are often excluded from the social benefits provided in labor codes or general labor legislation.

The Brazilian statute (February 20, 1941) dealing with permanent and temporary employees of the states, territories,

This article, prepared in the Division of Labor and Social Information, is largely based on material that has appeared in its official publication Noticias, No. 5, February 1941, and subsequent issues. Such material is obtained from official sources.

municipalities, and Federal District specifies their salary scale and provides old-age and sickness benefits, and, for employees who are expectant mothers, a 90-day leave of absence with pay. Special regulations were issued on February 27, 1941, for domestic servants in Brazil; a work book (*carteira profissional*) is now made compulsory, and the general form of contract for services and the obligations of both parties are prescribed.

Cuban regulations for the work of bagmenders at the port of Cienfuegos went into effect on July 2, 1941, and legal restrictions adopted on October 6, 1941, strictly limit permits for home work in needlework industries.

A series of Chilean decrees approved wage scales and other working conditions for longshoremen in Valparaíso (June 28, 1941), San Antonio (April 30, 1941), and certain other ports (June 14, 1941).

For home needleworkers the Peruvian government, on August 5, 1941, created in other cities of the nation state-owned shops such as already existed in Lima, so that women needleworkers might "profit to the greatest possible extent from their work and enjoy the benefits of social legislation."

Uruguayan legislation of December 20, 1940, covers hours of labor, wages, housing, medical services, and industrial hygiene for workers in the rice fields.

CHILDREN, MOTHERS, AND THE FAMILY.—

On April 19, 1941, the Brazilian government adopted measures of a social, civil, and financial character designed to organize and protect the family. Among them figure loans for workers planning to be married, one type to be used for the purchase of a family home, another for necessary clothing and home furnishings; family subsidies; preference in federal, state, and municipal positions for married men; and facilities for the education of children in large families. Other provisions legalize,

under certain conditions, the marriage of relatives in the third degree of consanguinity; exempt the indigent from fees for civil marriage and for the recognition of natural children; authorize food allowances; and impose a surtax on bachelors, widowers, and childless couples.

The Dominican Republic created, on November 15, 1940, the National Board for the Protection of Mothers and Children under the chairmanship of the Secretary of Health and Welfare; the Board is charged with providing both social benefits and medical care for mothers and children.

SETTLEMENT OF LABOR DISPUTES.—In many countries existing social legislation has been made still more effective by creating an atmosphere of greater harmony between capital and labor.

In Chile, several of the permanent conciliation boards provided for by the Labor Code for compulsory action in collective disputes arising in specified industries were organized on May 30 and June 17, 1941; they deal with agriculture and the food and milling industries in various localities.

On March 29, 1941, the provisions relative to the right to strike, granted by the Mexican Federal Labor Law, were amended so as to recognize strikes as *legal* suspension of work. Further requirements were added for declaring and giving notification of a strike, and a new procedure to be followed in settling a dispute was prescribed: Boards of Conciliation and Arbitration, which formerly could act only after a strike had been declared, are now empowered to take action before it is called.

LABOR INSPECTION.—Certain aspects of national services in this field were improved in several countries. In Brazil, for example, maritime labor commissions charged with inspection of working conditions in shipping and in the fishing



VALPARAÍSO HARBOR

Wage scales and other working conditions for longshoremen in Valparaíso were prescribed by a decree issued in June 1941.

industry were reorganized on June 12, 1941.

On September 5, 1941, the National Service of Agricultural Production and Rural Education of Haiti received broad powers to inspect working and sanitary conditions in industrial and agricultural enterprises throughout the country.

According to the provisions of a resolution of August 8, 1941, all candidates designated by the Venezuelan labor inspection service for the positions of inspector and of special labor commissioner must take a special 30-60 day training course, that will include theoretical and practice work and studies of social legislation.

COLONIZATION.—A wiser agricultural resettlement policy has been introduced in several countries, to make better use of available national human resources by

means of more rational agricultural production. The program for this purpose includes the extensive resettlement and colonization plans, providing for the parcellation of hitherto unworked lands, that have been undertaken in Argentina, Brazil, and Paraguay to make up for the cessation of foreign immigration. These plans, it should be noted, consider colonization a distinctly national problem, whose solution should be left no longer to scattered private or local initiative, but included in the centralized activities of the government.

The Argentine colonization law of September 2, 1940, created the National Agrarian Council, which will put into effect a national program. The principal functions of the Council are to plan, methodically and progressively, for the ques-



Photograph by Rebecca Smaltz

A RURAL HOME IN PARAGUAY

A recent law in Paraguay authorizes the government to put land, seeds and tools at the disposal of every farmer.

tion of rural property grants throughout the nation; to organize a campaign to increase the population of the country; to recommend transfers of farmers living on marginal lands to more productive areas; and to develop family, communal, and Indian colonization.

In Brazil, a law of February 14, 1941, empowers the federal government, through the Ministry of Agriculture and with the cooperation of the states and the municipalities, to establish agricultural colonies where Brazilian citizens and immigrant farmers may have an opportunity to become rural property owners.

The policy of the Paraguayan Agrarian Reform Law, authorizing the government to put lands, seeds, and tools for farm work at the disposal of every farmer, was extended, on September 8, 1941, to provide

for repatriated citizens, urban residents in need because of the scarcity of work, and for farmers lacking sufficient funds to tide them through the period between planting and harvest. The Department of Lands and Colonization will organize school-colonies for these citizens where they will receive a year's training to make them eligible to own a plot in an agricultural colony. Moreover, believing that there should be available in each locality a center where farmers may go for aid, consultation, and guidance, the government on the same date decreed that in every village throughout the country a "Farmer's House" (*Casa del Agricultor*) should be organized, to consist of a branch of the Agricultural Bank of Paraguay and agencies of various government bureaus concerned with agriculture and colonization.

Social welfare

To give a more complete idea of recent Latin American legislation to benefit those gainfully employed, at least some of the progress in the fields of social security, housing, industrial hygiene and safety, price control, and cooperative societies should be noted.

SOCIAL SECURITY.—The scope of Chilean social security legislation was extended on May 16, 1941, when members of fire departments were granted compensation for accidents suffered and illnesses contracted while on duty.

The social security benefits established in Panama on March 21, 1941, will cover—with the exception of “war risks”—illness, invalidity, old age, and death and, “when the financial status of the Social Security Fund permits,” unemployment and industrial accidents.

In January 1941, Peruvian medical

service and other assistance were declared available to insured workers in the Provinces of Lima and Ica, and the collection of the workers’ social service contributions, which had not been required before that time, was begun. On February 18 the necessary regulations were issued, and thereby the whole program of compulsory social security formulated in 1936 became effective; this includes sickness, maternity, invalidity, old age, and death benefits.

A forward step was also taken by Mexico toward the establishment of social security, for which preparations have been under way for several years. In June 1941, a Technical Commission was created to draft a new bill on the subject.

With a view to liberalizing the existing laws on labor accidents and occupational diseases, the President of Uruguay signed a law on February 28, 1941, that expands the field of existing legislation, formerly



Courtesy of São Paulo Bureau of Colonization

SETTLERS IN SÃO PAULO, BRAZIL

The Federal Government is empowered to establish agricultural colonies where Brazilian citizens and immigrant farmers may have an opportunity to become rural property owners.

applicable only to workers employed in a limited number of industries, and increases all compensation, which in previous legislation "was notoriously low and did not properly compensate for injuries caused by industry with its present mechanized production." In Uruguay, too, the law of January 3, 1941, made insurance against invalidity, old age, and death compulsory for owners of businesses or those working independently, and to that end a special "Section of Employers' Retirement," was created in Industry, Commerce, and Public Service Retirement Fund.

A social security organization that transcends national boundaries is the newly created Inter-American Social Security Committee, founded in Lima in December 1940. This committee will make possible "an organized and permanent exchange of information among the social security

institutions of the American countries, which will serve as a basis for convening, at some future time, an inter-American conference on social security." It adopted "the basic principles of the resolutions on social security approved by the Labor Conferences of the American States Members of the International Labor Organization, which met at Santiago, Chile, in January 1936 and at Habana in December 1939."

WORKERS' HOUSING.—On June 23, 1941, Paraguay joined the Latin American countries having a National Housing Council.

In Peru the government dealt with the problem of housing for workers who were left homeless by the May 1940 earthquake in Callao by ordering, in April 1941, the construction in that port, at government expense, of two housing projects.

The Venezuelan housing problem will be under the supervision of the Workers' Bank, in accordance with new regulations for that institution issued July 11, 1941. The bank is entrusted with the erection or purchase of multiple-family dwellings costing not more than 30,000 bolívares and the construction of low-cost housing projects.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE AND SAFETY.—In this field, too, progress has been made. For example, the new general industrial hygiene and safety regulations approved on November 25, 1940, in Chile, are of prime importance. They fix in detail the minimum hygiene and safety standards to be maintained in mines, industrial and commercial establishments, transportation and public services; special provisions set hygiene and safety standards in unhealthy and dangerous industries and especially prohibit the employment of women and minors in certain work.

Argentina established, at the beginning of 1941, the Council of Industrial Safety,



Courtesy of the Coordinator's Office

EDUCATING THE PUBLIC

The text of this poster reads: "Social security prevents beggary in old age."



THE MINISTRY OF PUBLIC HEALTH, LA PAZ, BOLIVIA

under the chairmanship of the director of the National Labor Office. The Council was created to promote a campaign to prevent industrial accidents and occupational diseases and to stimulate compliance with existing legislation in this field.

On April 25, 1941, a special commission was established in Brazil to codify industrial hygiene standards, especially as regards employment in unhealthful industries and the prevention of accidents and occupational diseases; provisions on these matters were formerly scattered in legislation dealing primarily with hours of labor, minimum wages, and other like matters.

Health measures to prevent malaria among workers in alluvial mines were adopted by Colombia on July 3, 1941.

The Dominican Republic adopted, on July 28, 1941, regulations for the protec-

tion of persons engaged in mining gold and other metals and minerals.

Pneumoconiosis prevention and other hygiene and safety measures not previously treated satisfactorily in mining inspection regulations were instituted in Peru on January 30, 1941.

PRICE CONTROL.—Recent legislation on this subject shows that the governments are aware of the need of protecting workers and the public in general against a scarcity of articles of prime necessity and against price increases not justified by world conditions.

During 1941 Argentina issued several decrees in application of law 12,591, on the supervision of maximum prices for articles of prime necessity. The prices of such commodities as a certain type of bread sold over the counter, rice, eggs, and other foodstuffs were fixed, and the export of rice and some other commodities was forbidden.

A decree of August 2, 1941 created a fund of 500,000 paper pesos to commandeer or purchase such commodities for direct sale to the public.

✓ Since July 24, 1941, Chile has exercised price control over building materials. On the same date producers and warehousemen were instructed to declare what stocks of beans they had on hand. On June 26, 1941, rules for facilitating the shipment of articles of prime necessity to the northern region of the country were drawn up, obliging shipping companies to give preference to those articles over wines.

The government of Haiti has taken even more extensive measures. The decree-law of September 5, 1941, entrusts to the National Service of Agricultural Production and Rural Education control over the purchase and sale of vital articles and raw materials and over prices, to ensure the productive development of the national economy.

The National Price Regulation Board in Caracas and local boards in other parts of the country were created in Venezuela on October 1 last; these are to control not only the prices of articles of prime necessity, as defined by law, but also rents.

THE COOPERATIVE MOVEMENT.—Many advances in this field were also noted. In 1941 legislation regulating cooperative societies was promulgated in Bolivia and Peru for the first time.

In Bolivia the government decided that, to counteract the scarcity of articles of prime necessity and corresponding price increases, the organization of consumers' cooperatives would be the best measure. These societies are expected to provide food, clothing, housing, furniture, medications, and other goods for the personal and household use of their members; they

will be granted exemption from taxes; preference in the allocation of foreign exchange, in ration quotas, and in the granting of loans; reduction in freight charges; and other advantages.

In Peru the emphasis on cooperatives was placed on agricultural organization among small- and medium-scale farmers and in Indian communities. The Bureau of Agriculture and Cattleraising of the Ministry of Promotion and Public Works has established a Section of Agricultural Cooperatives to encourage, organize, recognize, and control such societies, and to issue regulations for the various cooperatives, whether they are devoted to the development of agricultural and stock-raising activities or to rural industries in general.

Brazil provided, on March 19, 1941, supervision over cooperative societies, defining their duties and those of official supervisory offices, the administrative procedure, and the procedure of appeal in case of infraction of the new provisions.

The government of Mexico established some years ago a credit system for workers who had formed cooperative societies and for small-scale independent producers in general. This credit for cooperative purposes will, in the future, be regulated by the law of April 30, 1941, which created the National Bank to Promote the Cooperative Movement. The duty of the new institution will be to provide credit for cooperative societies and credit unions, to perform other functions of a mortgage bank, to act as agent of such societies and unions in the purchase of material needed by their members for industrial development or for home use and in the sale of their products, and to organize and administer the Workers' Savings Bureau.

Presenting Cuba, Our Good Neighbor

ALFRED L. LUPIEN

Now, in these days of our Good Neighbor Policy, in these days of awakening or reawakening interest in our Latin American neighbors, near and distant, is the time for all good men, especially teachers and more especially teachers of Spanish, to come to the aid of their country. Teachers of Spanish now find themselves in rare circumstances. They do not have to apologize for their work. They do not go begging for students on whom to try out their latest verb drills. Adults, college and even high school students, are thirsting for information about Latin America, are thirsting for knowledge of the language spoken, with slight local variations, by all but two of the republics south of the United States.

In line with this national policy and public interest it is the duty of all who can, particularly teachers, to learn more about Latin Americans and their language, right from the source, at first hand. By this I mean that you should visit Latin America and talk with Latin Americans. The people that just moved into that house next door aren't neighbors until you talk with them and they talk with you. Mere proximity, even mutual interests, don't make good neighbors. There must be personal contact and there must be intercommunication.

That all sounds well, you say, but those Latin-American neighbors are more than a country mile distant. Very true, and truer if you have never visited any of them. Argentina, Mexico, Peru, Cuba do not seem nearly so far to those Americans—I should say North Americans—who have

visited those countries as they once did. To me, for example, Cuba was just a name with geographical, historical, rumba associations before I visited it last summer. Now it is a country, a semitropical paradise, where people live, real human beings who sing our songs as well as their own, applaud our movies, read our books, use our manufactured goods, and idealize our great statesmen. In their frank manner they would say they love us Norteamericanos. I should like all the Latin Americans, their homes, urban and rural, their cultures, but most of all themselves, similarly to come to life for me, to step out of geography and history texts and cinema romances, to become American neighbors. And I wish the same for you.

The fact remains, you say, that those countries are geographically distant, expensively distant, for those who, like this writer, would like to see, to live in, to come to know one and all. For us in the eastern United States one of those countries, Cuba, is not very distant geographically, compared to many points of tourist interest in our own country or even compared to Europe, which before the war was not too distant for many travelers, far more than have ever visited Latin America. You can almost drive to Cuba, 1,500 of the 1,800 miles between New York and Habana. Yet, except for the people interested only in changing bars with the seasons (the kind of tourist that does travel to Cuba in some numbers, and the kind of tourist that does American good will no good in any country), Cuba has been pretty much

neglected as a center of tourism. As many good Americans as meet Sloppy Joe should meet and communicate with José, the Cuban barber, the tradesman, the agricultural worker, or just José, the human Cuban.

Few serious tourists aim a trip solely and deliberately at Cuba. Most North Americans who see Cuba see it on a one- or two-day stop-over from a cruise ship. Then what do they see? Most of Habana, including the fabulous Capitol, Sans Souci, and the Casino. Efficiently guided sight-seeing cars rapidly cover all the high spots of historical interest, all that will appeal to lovers of the quaint. For Habana is quaint; it's foreign; it's tropically exotic. One-day tourists end their superficial round of the city fascinated—and still feeling superior. Those who have conducted these visitors, dined them, danced them, all have made their handsome profits. So everybody's happy—except the Good Neighbor Policy, for it has profited little.

Cuba is an excellent place to start getting acquainted with our fellow Americans. (Like all Latin Americans, Cubans resent the way we reserve the term *Americans* for ourselves.) Go there seriously with that purpose in mind. Live there; mingle with the people; ride with them in their *guaguas* (buses); shop with them; talk with them; share their amusements; for the length of your stay do as the Cubans do. See more of Cuba than Habana; find out something of the country's history; learn about its New Deal; see how people there make their living; find out about the country's resources for better living. What are its ties with us? How can these ties be strengthened?

When you have done all this, and you feel that you know Cuba and the Cubans know you, it's time enough then to make the acquaintance of another neighbor.

Furthermore, the time is coming, after this war, of course, when travel to Central and South America will be easier and cheaper than it is now. The Pan American Highway, when completed, and lower steamship fares, bound to come, will bring extensive Latin-American travel closer to the tourist's pocketbook. Meanwhile, go to Cuba.

If you are a student or teacher, why not go to school in Cuba? It has one of the oldest universities in the Americas, founded in 1728, a university with a fine cultural tradition, housed in magnificent classical buildings. A six-week summer session at the University of Habana (full matriculation fee, \$40) offers a variety of courses in the language and literature, as well as the geography, history, and economics, of our Spanish-American neighbors. Last summer, when the University's first summer session was held, all but two of the courses were given in Spanish; that offers an excellent means of tuning up your Spanish ear and developing your skill in using the oral and written language. As a further service, last summer the University sponsored weekly excursions in and about Habana of interest to students of history, geography, education, and economics. Two hundred dollars would easily see you through the summer session there.

(It would be a good idea for some philanthropic person or organization to offer scholarships for that amount to deserving high-school students who expect to continue the study of Spanish in college, and to college students who have been successful in the subject and contemplate entering a vocation in which the extra polish on their language skills afforded by a summer in Habana would be an advantage in their chosen work.)

Yes, \$200 is quite sufficient for a modest summer in Habana. One can travel from New York to Miami by train, super-de-



Courtesy of Cuban Tourist Commission

COLONIAL HOUSES IN TRINIDAD, CUBA

Founded more than a century before the Pilgrims landed on Plymouth Rock, charming Trinidad will give any one from Cuba's northern neighbor the sensation of being definitely "abroad."



Courtesy of Cuban Tourist Commission

ENTRANCE TO THE UNIVERSITY OF HABANA

Last year the University had a highly successful summer school, whose courses were enjoyed by many students from the United States.

luxe, for approximately \$95 round trip, by bus for \$60, by car for \$50. From Miami he can proceed by boat, an overnight trip, for \$33.50 round trip; from Key West by boat for \$23; or from Miami via Pan American Airways for \$36, a rare opportunity for one desiring a plane trip at a price comparable to other means of travel. And what airline has more romantic and glamorous associations than Pan American Airways?

In the summer off-season in Habana, one can live very reasonably even in first-class hotels. For example, at one of the best, located close to the shore, you can get a single room with bath at a dollar a day. In a hotel charging more moderate rates,

a room with bath and three meals comes to about \$70 for a six-week period. Similar accommodations in a private home would be approximately \$50 for the six weeks. The highest prices in Cuba are for United States manufactured goods, which you would have little occasion to buy. Amusements, living, and personal services are all extremely reasonable.

So there's no reason, outside of time and \$200 (unless it be these war clouds that have finally burst over us), why next summer, or any time soon that you are free, you can't begin the job of being a better American by knowing America, all of America, better. Why not start in Cuba?

New Industries in Latin America

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THE twenty-nine months that have gone by since the fateful announcement was made by the late British Prime Minister, Mr. Neville Chamberlain, on September 3, 1939, that the British Empire was at war with Germany, have left their indelible mark not only on the nations of Europe but on the nations of the Western Hemisphere as well. When hostilities first broke out, the Latin American countries, although not involved directly, had to face the fact that their trade with Europe was due to suffer a catastrophic disruption. That disruption affected not only their exports, which for most of them were a vital part of their economy, but also their imports of the manufactured goods so necessary to their way of life.

For reasons that have been often enumerated—reasons such as small populations with restricted purchasing power, lack of domestic capital, credit, and markets, of developed electric power and fuel, and of adequately trained technicians—the Latin American countries through the decades that followed their establishment as independent nations were predominantly producers of raw materials rather than industrialists. The wave of industrial development that began to sweep other parts of the world during the 19th century scarcely grazed Latin America. Raw materials, and even agricultural products such as wheat, were sent abroad and local

requirements for manufactured and processed goods were met by imports.

It was not until the First World War that manufacturing on any appreciable scale began to gain a foothold in Latin America. Much progress was achieved in many countries, but in practically all cases local industries were occupied predominantly in satisfying the fundamental requirements for food, clothing, and shelter—making textiles and shoes, for example, milling wheat and producing building materials. With a few exceptions, there was a general lack of heavy industry such as metallurgy or the manufacture of machinery or vehicles, and there was a lack in the chemical industry in such fields as synthetic products, explosives, mineral derivatives, fertilizers, and similar products. When the Second World War broke out, it found Latin America still dependent upon imports for a large portion of its needs for manufactured and processed goods.

At this point, however, the picture begins to change. Necessity, it seems, is indeed the mother of invention. The emergency brought about by the loss of European sources of supply for manufactured items, the difficulties of exchange, the scarcity of shipping facilities and, more recently, the priorities restrictions on account of hemispheric defense measures of the United States—which is almost the only large source of imports left open—have resulted in a great impetus to industry in practically all of Latin America which may well be of enormous and lasting importance.

This article is based in large part on news items of countries and commodities that appeared during 1941 in Foreign Commerce Weekly, a publication of the United States Department of Commerce, Washington.

The following résumé of industries that have been established or expanded in the various Latin American nations during the past year or two makes no claim to completeness. It skims the surface, attempting primarily to emphasize the trend. It shows that there is a definite effort and determination throughout Latin America to create or expand local industry in order to supply goods formerly imported. The consumption of native raw materials by native industry is increasing, with its resultant desirable effect on production of such materials. One of the greatest difficulties to be surmounted at present is the obtaining of machinery for new enterprises. This survey reveals above all that the countries of Latin America are awakening to their dormant possibilities and are trying to solve the urgent problem of meeting their own needs—perhaps even reaching an export level for certain products—by a method that is bound to reflect beneficially upon their economic and social life.

Textiles

As a result of weakened foreign competition and, in some cases, of the fact that imports were hampered by the exchange situation, textile industries generally throughout Latin America have recently been operating at capacity, and in many countries there have been numerous expansions and new enterprises.

In *Brazil*, the largest Latin American manufacturer of textiles, whose cotton goods have reached the status of an export product,¹ a number of cotton-thread and textile manufacturers are planning to modernize and expand their plants. In *Peru* the manufacture of cotton, woolen, and rayon textiles increased in 1940 by at least 10 percent, and this active rate of operation continued through 1941. The

large cotton mills that formerly manufactured only sheetings and gingham imported machinery from the United States and the United Kingdom in order to increase their assortments of piece goods. Altogether, 700 new looms were installed in various cotton mills. The rayon-weaving industry, first established in Peru in 1935, has undergone rapid development. Early in 1941 8 mills were in operation with a total of 530 looms, and plans were afoot for the construction of a rayon-yarn plant.

In *Chile* the Corporación de Fomento (Development Corporation) recently provided for a loan of 100,000 pesos to a Chilean firm to enlarge a factory that makes a cotton textile impregnated with celluloid, useful in the manufacture of shoes. In *Uruguay* a company with a capital of 3,000,000 pesos was organized in 1940 for the purpose of erecting a cotton-spinning mill. Orders for the necessary machinery were placed in the United Kingdom and the United States, and the plant was expected to be in operation during the latter part of 1941. In *Colombia* textile mills have been operating at full capacity for more than a year. There were plant enlargements in the mills at Medellín and further expansions are now being planned, for mills are still unable to satisfy the strong current demand. The republic has but one rayon-yarn factory, established in 1939, which has recently been attempting to acquire additional equipment in the hope of ultimately increasing its production of rayon yarn from its present maximum rate of about 77,000 pounds per month to 220,500 pounds. In *Guatemala* the recent establishment of two additional cotton mills has caused an increased demand for both raw cotton and cotton yarn and has given an impetus to cotton growing. A Cotton Congress held in Buenos Aires in December 1940, considering the

¹ See BULLETIN, November 1941, pp. 653-654.



Foto Williams

A SHOE FACTORY

In several countries new industries for the processing of tanning agents are being initiated in order to keep the already thriving shoe industry adequately supplied with leather.

question of *Argentina's* cotton surplus, resolved to take steps to encourage cotton manufacturing and the development of numerous small household cotton industries in suitable localities.

Fibers

Many of the Latin American countries are rich in native fiber plants. Much of the fiber is exported, but some of the countries have begun to use it locally in manufactures of bags, rope, and cord. *El Salvador*, for instance, which formerly exported all of its annual production of approximately 4,500,000 pounds of henequen, established in 1932 a bag factory, which was an immediate success. The factory, which has long supplied all local bag requirements, has expanded many times and now that the export demand is growing,

the plant hopes to increase production until it can supply the needs of neighboring countries. This same factory also makes cord used in native handicrafts. The expected expansion of this industry will leave little if any surplus of henequen for export.

✓ In *Chile* the Corporación de Fomento has recently made a loan of 500,000 pesos for purchase of land and construction of a hemp elaboration plant, to take care of an anticipated large hemp harvest in 1942. An additional fund of 100,000 pesos was established for studies of the manufacture of machinery for the hemp industry.

In *Colombia* government aid has recently been proposed for the *fique* industry. This is a native plant that produces a fiber that is comparable to sisal and that is widely used in Colombia as a substitute for both

sisal and jute. Large-scale development of the product is relatively recent but its expanded elaboration will be of considerable importance to the country, since practically all Colombian coffee is shipped in bags made of *fique*.

Domestic consumption of native fibers is expanding in *Brazil*, due in part to decreased availability of imported fibers and in part to government regulations that, seeking the development of native products, require an admixture of domestic fibers in products formerly made entirely of foreign ones. Efforts are being made to increase the production of *caroa*, one of Brazil's better known hard fibers, produced principally in the State of Pernambuco. It can be satisfactorily used for the manufacture of twine and cordage, and combined with jute and other fibers, in yarn for the local manufacture of men's suitings. At Vitória, State of Espírito Santo, a new factory has been constructed for the manufacture of bags. A mixture of two fibers will be used, jute and *Guaxima roxa*, a native plant. The utilization of this latter fiber has hitherto been quite limited, but the new factory, which has 34 looms, contemplates an annual output of 1,500,000 bags. Experiments in the cultivation of Indian jute have been reported to be successful in the Amazon Valley. Approximately 350 tons were produced in the State of Amazonas in 1940 and the 1941 production was estimated to be three times that figure. The successful cultivation of this fiber would mean that Brazil could produce an item which it formerly had to import in large quantities and for which a constant demand exists in the other American republics.

In *Peru* flax growers, agricultural associations, and government agencies made efforts in 1941 to obtain seed for additional flax acreage; and in order to pay for enlargements of the government's flax proc-

essing plant at Barranca, the charges to growers using the plant were increased approximately 20 percent.

Medicinals, crude drugs, essential oils, and toiletries

The curtailment of imports from Europe of perfumes, toilet waters, lotions, soaps, pharmaceutical products, drugs, and essential oils has given rise to new industrial and agricultural activity in some of the Latin American countries.

In *Panama*, where French perfume has long been an important trade item, an importer and wholesale dealer installed manufacturing equipment in his warehouse and began to manufacture his own toiletries.

The cultivation of medicinal plants and the production of essential oils used in both medicines and perfumes represent developments that loom large in Latin American industry. In 1941, for the first time, the *Dominican Republic* began to export the medicinal drug aloes. Most of the product is coming from wild aloe plants and consequently the present annual production is not much above 45 to 50 tons a year. But producers, hoping to establish the Dominican Republic as a permanent source of supply, even after the war, are planting fields of aloe, and it has been estimated that by 1942 production may increase to about 100 tons a year. In *Guatemala* considerable publicity has recently been accorded cinchona bark. At the November 1940 National Fair an instructive exhibit was installed showing details of cinchona cultivation and preparation of quinine sulfate. For the past two years there have been exports of the bark (approximately 75,000 pounds in 1940), and although its average yield at present is only about 3 percent, making it unprofitable for medicinal purposes, it is useful in certain metallurgical operations.

In *Argentina* the local drug industry was handicapped during 1940 by difficulties in obtaining raw materials, but nevertheless it continued to manufacture or compound over 90 percent of all medicinal and pharmaceutical products sold in the country. To take care of the raw material situation, there has been a notable expansion during the past two years in the cultivation of medicinal plants and herbs such as camomile flowers, stramonium, malva, peppermint, dandelion, and fennel, and simultaneously an increased production of essential oils such as peppermint, lavender, fennel, grapefruit, orange, lemon, eucalyptus, and anethol.

In *Peru*, too, the war has increased medicinal production, some of it entirely domestic and some of it the elaboration and packing of imported products. Appreciable quantities of cocaine are now being produced from domestic coca leaves. The cultivation of medicinal plants and production of essential oils is a new development in *Chile*. A single producer, who started ten years ago with a few seeds imported from Europe and who for some time had but a limited production, is now filling domestic requirements of many products formerly imported and even has an exportable surplus of some. Since the beginning of the war, Chile has received many inquiries from the United States concerning the availability of these products, and it is expected that such a demand will result in an even greater expansion of this industry. The Corporación de Fomento has provided for loans to farmers for the cultivation of medicinal and spice plants and the production of essential oils. The cultivation of peppermint and lavender is still not enough to supply domestic requirements but it is hoped to expand and attain an exportable surplus of considerable proportions within two years. Pine and eucalyptus oils are already being exported in addition to

supplying home needs, and the plan is to increase the output heavily. The production possibilities of eucalyptus, especially, are practically unlimited, for an incalculable number of such trees grow in Chile. Fennel and boldo oils can also be produced in large quantities if markets are found. A recent survey showed that the following additional medicinal and spice plants are produced in Chile in a volume that allows, will soon allow, or can allow upon demand, an exportable surplus: pyrethrum, fenugreek, coriander, white mustard, borage, poppy seed, saffron, goat's rue, marjoram, sage, ratany root, and soapbark. The trees from which this latter item is taken grow wild in Chile. Formerly the country's annual export of soapbark, amounting to approximately 2,750 tons, went mostly to Germany, but it will now be available for shipment to the United States.

Brazil is increasing not only its manufactures but also its exports of drugs and pharmaceutical preparations, as statistics for 1940 and 1941 show.

Chemicals

Another expanding industry is the manufacture of chemicals and their related products. In *Colombia* a sulfuric acid and copper sulfate plant is enlarging its manufacturing facilities. A new corporation, capitalized at 400,000 bolívares, has been formed in Caracas, *Venezuela*, for the production of caustic soda, liquid chlorine, and various byproducts. Application was recently filed for the purchase of the necessary equipment in the United States, but in view of defense priorities the date of delivery has become slightly problematical. In *Mexico* the local manufacture of many kinds of chemicals has had a notable impulse. During the past year a new plant was established for the manufacture of precipitate of calcium carbonate and of

various magnesium products (carbonate, oxide, hydroxide, and chloride). Another new plant is manufacturing stearic acid; another, citric acid; another, liquid caustic soda; another caustic soda, cellulose, and kraft cellulose; another will make cellulose by the chloride-alkaline process from such materials as bagasse, esparto or matweed, banana stalks, and *zacatón*, a native fiber. In *Brazil*, too, there is a new caustic soda plant.

A new industry in *Mexico* is the extraction of tanning materials from the cuttings of certain native trees. In *Colombia* tanners are seeking a substitute for formaldehyde as a pigment-fixing agent in the tanning of shoe leather, as present difficulties in obtaining that chemical are causing serious concern to the country's thriving shoe industry. Studies are also being made by officials of the Colombian Government looking toward the establishment of a plant for the manufacture of chemical products derived from sodium chloride. In *Chile* the Corporación de Fomento has recently authorized the investment of 100,000 pesos in industrial experiments, including, prominently, the distilling of coal tar, which is expected to lead to new industrial activity.

Fertilizers offer another field in which considerable activity is apparent. *Mexico* has three new fertilizer plants, one at Torreón, another at Saltillo, and another in the course of construction at Mexico City. It is expected that domestic consumption of bones resulting from this increased activity will reduce bone shipments to the United States. Another Mexican development along these lines is the recently established industry for the utilization of marine products in the elaboration of fertilizers.

Attempts are being made in *Brazil* to produce plantation timbó. The timbó plant, from the roots of which is prepared

a powder that serves as the base of certain non-poisonous agricultural insecticides, grows wild in the lower Amazon Valley. Exports of the powder (regulations prohibit the exportation of unprocessed timbó) totaled over 600 tons in 1939, and with the anticipated experiments in plantation production, this figure is expected to increase.

Paper and related products

Another activity which enjoys prospects for development and expansion in many Latin American countries is the paper industry, both the production of paper and paperboards and of pulp. In *Argentina* several new paper establishments have begun to operate during the past two years. The problem of obtaining adequate supplies of pulp has in part been met by an expansion of the domestic pulp industry, particularly straw pulp. In *Brazil* announcements have been made of the development of new processes for the production of chemical pulp from Paraná pine. Arrangements were completed about a year ago to finance a large-scale plant in southern Brazil for manufacturing newsprint that would utilize that species of pine. Another new project was started for the manufacture of wood pulp for writing paper, using 75 percent pine and 25 percent eucalyptus.

Paints and pigments

The *Argentine* paint industry has expanded so widely in recent years that domestic manufacture now supplies most of the national demand for ready-mixed paints, lacquers, and other finishes. In *Mexico* the local manufacture of paints, varnishes, and lacquers is eliminating foreign competition to a growing degree, and in *Peru* there has likewise been some recent expansion and new enterprise in that field.

Tung nuts, the oil of which is used in the

manufacture of paints and varnishes, have been under rather limited cultivation in *Paraguay* for some time, but official experiments are now under way to develop a wider cultivation that will produce a quantity sufficient for use in the paint industry. One of the larger flour mills in *Paraguay* was recently reported to have under consideration the installation of machinery for tung oil extraction.

Cement

Cement is a product that is universally in demand. In *Peru* the industry is undergoing a definite expansion and existing plants have for some time been operating at full capacity. It was planned some months ago to establish new plants in Arequipa and Chiclayo. One of *Mexico's* largest cement mills recently undertook extensive plant enlargements. A new

plant in *Nicaragua*, expected to supply the larger part of the country's demand, will be ready for operation early in 1942. The new factory near Cali, *Colombia*, started production at the rate of 100 tons per day at the beginning of 1941, and shortly thereafter the two leading plants in the Bogotá area were enlarged. In *Brazil* plans were made some months ago for the erection of new plants at Baía and Rio Grande do Sul.

Lumber

Lumber and the elaboration of its related products are providing another field of industrial activity. *Peru's* lumber industry has recently undergone some expansion; at Barranquilla, *Colombia*, a new plant was equipped and began operations in 1941 for the manufacture of veneer for packing cases; and in *Mexico* the establishment of a



PARANÁ PINE LOGS READY FOR SHIPMENT

This type of pine is being utilized in Brazil's new pulp manufacturing plants.

new factory for the manufacture of laminated woods (plywood) was authorized in February 1941.

In São Paulo, *Brazil*, a firm recently began to manufacture a product that may prove of great significance to the Western Hemisphere. From the bark of four or five different trees found in Brazil this factory is making an insulating material that very closely resembles corkboard in both weight and appearance. Cork, long an important item in world commerce, has recently acquired new status as a critical material because of its many uses in articles of war. Almost the only source of supply has been the areas bordering the Mediterranean Sea, which makes it no longer available to the Western Hemisphere. Thus the Bra-

zilian bark may very well become of immense importance, both to Brazil as an article of export and to the hemisphere as a defense material. Estimates vary as to the amount that could be prepared annually for export, but some reports have indicated that it could be made available in vast quantities. This past year purchases of the bark by Brazil's two factories amounted to about 4,000 tons each.

Construction

Building, both public and private, is relatively active in practically all the Latin American countries and in some it has attained almost boom proportions. New industries and the expansion or reconditioning of existing ones are requir-



Courtesy of the Cerro de Pasco Copper Corporation

THE COPPER SMELTER AT OROYA, PERU

Mining is one of the oldest industries in Latin America, having been carried on in many places by the Indians before the arrival of Europeans. Articles of copper, gold or silver have been found in many archeological remains.



IRON AND STEEL MILL AT MONTERREY, MEXICO

Latin American iron and steel works are all operating at capacity and many of them are making extensive plant enlargements.

ing construction and many other projects are also under way. The most significant feature of all this construction activity is that everywhere native materials and nationally made builders' supplies and equipment are being used to the fullest possible extent. In *Argentina*, for example, the Government some time ago embarked on a grain elevator construction program that called for the completion of large elevators already started in some chief ports, the initiation of terminal elevators in several other ports, and the building of about 250 small elevators at interior points. About 90 percent of the materials for the inland elevators was expected to be of Argentine origin. In March 1941 the General Treasury of *Chile* authorized the transfer of 20,000,000 pesos to the Corporación de Fomento for the construction of low-cost houses. In *Peru*, *Brazil*, *Colombia*, and *Mexico*, during both 1940 and 1941, there was an increasing demand

for building materials that was indicative of new construction.

Mining

The outbreak of European hostilities in 1939 raised serious barriers to the international flow of minerals, for both belligerents and neutrals almost immediately adopted innumerable restrictive and control measures. Thereupon the mines of Latin America assumed tremendous significance in the hemispheric defense program that was evolved after September 1939. Some of the highly important strategic materials were already being produced in quantities that made the American republics good sources of supply but, while the potential production of others was great, actual production was often limited and needed much development to meet requirements. The urgency of that situation is being met by both local initiative and action of the Export-Import

Bank of Washington and the Metals Reserve Company, a subsidiary of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Brazil's new iron and steel mill, for instance, is being financed in part by an Export-Import Bank Loan.¹ Iron has been mined in Brazil for the past 350 years and considerable advances in the iron and steel industry have been made recently, but the demand for these materials has been increasing along with Brazil's new railway, industrial, and construction developments. The new mill is expected to fill about 50 percent of present domestic requirements.

The Metals Reserve Company has made arrangements with several countries to purchase supplies of strategic materials, such as Bolivian tin and tungsten; Argentine tungsten; Mexican antimony, arsenic, bismuth, cadmium, cobalt, copper, fluor-spar, graphite, lead, manganese, mercury, mica, molybdenum, tin, tungsten, vanadium, and zinc; and Brazilian bauxite, beryl ore, chromite, ferronickel, industrial diamonds, manganese, mica, quartz crystals, titanium (rutile), and zirconium. This certainty of a market, coupled with the vital need for such materials in continental defense, naturally acts as a stimulus to the mining industry.

Aside from Metals Reserve purchases, however, there are other developments. In *Peru* a commission was recently appointed by the Government to review the possibilities of establishing a steel industry in that country. *Mexico* has three large iron and steel mills, all operating at full capacity, and one of them is making extensive plant enlargements. The *Corporación de Fomento* in *Chile* lent 5,000,000 pesos to one mining company to complete installation of a mercury recovery plant, 1,000,000 pesos to another firm for the exploitation of manganese mines, and

300,000 pesos for exploration and exploitation of coal areas. *Brazil* is to have a new aluminum plant in Minas Gerais with an estimated annual capacity of 3,000 tons. In *Mexico* a graphite processing plant is being erected, and early in 1941 *Nicaragua* imported a considerable quantity of new mining machinery for improving national mineral output.

Railway, automotive, and aeronautical products

The manufacture of this type of equipment is making some headway in Latin America. One of *Mexico's* automobile assembly plants is enlarging. In *Brazil* a decree was signed a few months ago placing 14,000 contos (approximately \$720,000) to the credit of the Federal Ministry of Communications for the construction of a motor factory. Brazil's gasogene law, requiring that owners of ten or more auto vehicles have one in every ten equipped for the use of gasogene as a substitute for gasoline in order to conserve the country's supply of that vital fuel, went into effect on July 15, 1941, and prior thereto a new factory to produce gasogene apparatus for installation in automotive vehicles was built in Belo Horizonte. The airplane factory at São Paulo, Brazil, which was organized in 1931 for the training of pilots and airplane mechanics and which began in 1935 to produce planes on an extremely limited scale, has now abandoned its training school and is devoting all its attention to the manufacture of planes. At present these can be produced at the rate of 3 to 5 a month. Although many of the essential parts of these planes, such as motors, navigation instruments, steel tubing, and rubber tires, must be imported, the effort is made to use as much domestic material as possible. Native Brazilian woods are used, and propellers, cotton fabrics, paints, varnishes, and alu-

¹ See BULLETIN, December 1940, pp. 830-33.



A YUCA SALES MARKET

Western Hemisphere yuca is beginning to take its place as a substitute for the now scarce Far Eastern product, the source of tapioca.

minum wheels are all of domestic manufacture.

In *Bolivia* the car shops at Ladario, even before their final completion, turned out 10 gondola cars, and the manufacture of 100 more was planned. In *Mexico* part of the National Railways' requirements for new freight cars is being filled by local car factories.

Foodstuffs

The production and processing of all kinds of foodstuffs, for both home consumption and export, are everywhere undergoing a remarkable expansion. Many of the governments have taken definite steps to encourage the cultivation of basic food crops, at least to the extent of supplying home needs for products formerly obtained from abroad, and to stimulate the establishment or expansion of food processing industries.

Both *Brazil* and *Venezuela* are expanding their meat packing industry. The chief demand is for tinned meat. Plants in

Brazil are working at capacity and in *Venezuela* a new plant installed by the Ganadera Industrial Venezolana has very recently begun to operate. The inauguration of its activities was held up for a while pending receipt of sufficient tin to make 5,000,000 containers. The organization expects to offer a tinned meat product that will be able to compete in quality and price with similar products from other countries.

Several months ago the *Panamanian* Government, having in mind the establishment of three complete rice mills, was seeking specifications from American manufacturers for rice mill machinery and equipment; and at the same time the Government was interested in securing plans, machinery, and equipment for the establishment of a marine salt refinery. *Paraguay* passed a law more than a year ago exempting from import duties the machinery, equipment, and materials for a new flour mill.

In *Cuba* some months ago yuca growers and starch manufacturers sought assistance from the National Department of Agriculture to enable them to meet the United States market demand for tapioca. If this demand is to be met, production must be increased; and recognizing the fact that their products were not of the same high quality as those of the Far East, manufacturers expressed themselves as eager to improve their processes. This can be done with the investment of more capital in already existing plants, which is what the manufacturers desire rather than the erection of new plants at present.

In *Mexico* a new establishment for preparing frozen fowl and broken eggs in tins has been initiated and in *Brazil* a firm planning to build a local plant to produce liquid and dried egg products was recently granted permission to import

necessary machinery free of duty. In *Chile* the Corporación de Fomento made a loan to the Chilean Poultry Association to buy and store the spring surplus of eggs to release to the market in the winter. *Argentine* cheese of various types is finding a ready market in the United States and its manufacture is appreciably expanding. Condensed milk factories have been constructed in both Arequipa and Chiclayo, *Peru*.

The fishing industry is still another that is being given special attention in several countries. Some months ago *Peru* appointed a technical commission to explore the possibilities of such an industry and preliminary reports were of a favorable nature. *Mexico* has had a sizable fishing industry for some time, but a new branch of it was recently established for the extraction of fish oils and consideration is



Courtesy of Guatemalan Legation

LATIN AMERICAN CHEESE FOR UNITED STATES MARKETS

The war has given new impetus to cheese manufacturing in Latin America. The various European cheeses are now being replaced in United States markets by Argentine and other Latin American products.



CHILEAN FISHERMEN UNLOADING THE DAY'S CATCH

In connection with Latin America's extensive fishing industry new activities, such as the extraction of fish oils and the elaboration of fertilizer from marine products, are arising.

being given by fish warehousemen in Veracruz to the utilization of fish livers. If the livers of fish taken in that area prove suitable as sources of oil, it would be possible to refrigerate and export the whole livers.

When the curtailment of European markets, transportation difficulties, and other war disturbances struck hard at orange growers and exporters in the State of São Paulo, *Brazil*, a factory for the processing of orange products was built at Taubaté. The plant, completed about a year ago, produces not only concentrated orange juice of accepted commercial grade, but also fodder for cattle, and a pulp that can be used in the local manufacture of paper. Its capacity at present is about 500,000 boxes of oranges a year. Another

step to aid the marketing of this fruit is the new orange refrigeration plant now under construction at Rio de Janeiro.

In *Guatemala* new industrial enterprises are engaged in the manufacture of flavored gelatines and the extraction of avocado oil. The scarcity of tin for canning purposes has recently brought a new development to the fruit processing industry in *Chile*. The Agricultural Export Board obtained a loan of 2,600,000 pesos from the Corporación de Fomento for the construction of two fruit driers, fruit being a large crop in central Chile.

Special and miscellaneous products

The number of new industries throughout Latin America that are engaged, to a greater or less degree, in the manufacture

of various special products is surprising.

In *Guatemala* these diverse lines represent new industrial activity: wooden toys, school and carpenter's crayons, and metal furniture for hospitals and clinics. New plants in *Peru* are manufacturing toys and nails, and the exploitation of large oyster shells found in the rivers of Eastern Peru is being investigated as a possibility for the manufacture of buttons and other shell articles. *Colombia* has several new factories: one at Barranquilla for the manufacture of plastic tableware, cups, plates, and trays; and two plants, at Barranquilla and Cali, for the production of cheap metal kitchenware, knives, forks, and spoons. At Santiago, *Chile*, a firm was recently authorized to establish a radio receiving set manufacturing and assembly plant with a capacity of 25,000 sets per year. In *Brazil* there has been considerable extension in the manufacture of all kinds of hardware. In the machine tool industry, particularly, the number of types of tools has increased and the quality has been much improved. During 1940 the National Coffee Department of Brazil put Brazilian coffee to work in a new industry through the erection of an experimental plant for the manufacture of plastics from that familiar little bean. The consumption of another large plant, under construction at Sorocaba, was expected to be about 5,000,000 bags of coffee a year.

In *Mexico* a great number of new lines of manufacture have sprung up during the past year, ranging all the way from boats, gliders, and skis for sporting purposes to funeral accessories. Added impetus to new industrial initiative in Mexico was given by the governmental decree that exempted necessary equipment and raw materials not obtainable locally from import duties and the enterprise itself, if absolutely new to the country, from taxation for a period of five years.

The manufacture of rubber goods has been stimulated in several countries. In *Brazil* rubber refining and manufacturing machinery imports increased heavily in 1940. In *Venezuela* a rubber tire manufacturing establishment was installed. In *Colombia* a company at Barranquilla began to manufacture rubber toys and balloons. In *Cuba* the construction of two rubber goods factories was started in 1940, both of which began operations in 1941, one near Habana and the other at Matanzas. The former makes automobile and truck casings and inner tubes, rubber-soled canvas footwear, and molded household items. The second company is at present making only tennis shoes, at the rate of 200 to 300 pairs per day, but it plans to undertake the manufacture of other goods, such as rubber heels and rubber cloth, as soon as the tennis shoe production is satisfactorily established.

Mineral Resources and Products on Stamps of the American Republics

BEATRICE NEWHALL

Assistant Editor, BULLETIN of the Pan American Union

THE mineral wealth of the Americas was the magnet that drew sixteenth-century Europeans to the New World to explore, conquer and colonize. The search for and exploitation of gold was uppermost in the mind of every one, from king to commoner. And because in the lofty ramparts of the two Americas that stretch almost uninterruptedly from Alaska to Tierra del Fuego there lie hidden the precious metals that have been the symbol of worldly wealth since the dawn of history, it was in or near the mountains that the development of the two continents was centered in the hundred years after the Discovery, while men were learning the true nature and extent of the New World. The agricultural resources of this hemisphere and the baser metals, without which modern industry would wither away, were tardily appreciated.

The subjects illustrated on stamps devoted to mineral resources fall into four classifications: mining in general, metals, non-metallic minerals, and precious stones.

Mining, miners, mining towns, and mineral products have been pictured on many stamps of the American republics, but chiefly in recent years, an evidence of the growing appreciation of the place industry occupies in the modern world.

During colonial days the Viceroyalty of Peru was considered one of the richest regions of the world. The fact that the Incas had vainly sought to ransom their ruler Atahualpa by filling a huge chamber

with gold, much of it worked into beautiful ornaments, was evidence to the early Spanish conquistadors that they had found the land of wealth they were seeking. That they were not mistaken was proved in the ensuing years by the constant stream of mineral wealth that poured from the heart of the Andes to swell the coffers of the King of Spain. Enough stayed in the country, however, to allow the homes of the wealthy creoles to vie in luxury with those of the Court in the mother country.

Peru first paid tribute on stamps to the mining industry in its 1931-32 issue, whose 50-centavo stamp shows a mining town and has the legend *La Minería* (Mining). A few years later (1936-37) an airmail series also depicted on the 50-centavo stamp a mining town; the legend gives specific information on the variety of mineral wealth Peru can boast: *El Perú produce oro, plata, cobre, bismuto, plomo, vanadio, tungsteno, molibdeno, zinc, estaño, hierro, etc.* (Peru produces gold, silver, copper, bismuth, lead, vanadium, tungsten, molybdenum, zinc, tin, iron, etc.).

In colonial days the present republic of Bolivia was part of the Viceroyalty of Peru. Its mineral wealth was among the first to be exploited by the Spaniards in America, and Potosí, "the mountain of silver," became proverbial in the Spanish-speaking world: to describe something as being "worth a Potosí" was the equivalent to saying that it was of enormous value. Potosí has also been described as "a table



MINING IS AN IMPORTANT INDUSTRY IN CHILE, BOLIVIA, AND MEXICO

of silver on legs of gold," and the first coat of arms of the city, granted by the Emperor Charles V, bore the legend: "I am rich Potosí, the treasure of the world, the king of mountains, and the envy of kings." From Potosí alone more than 3,000,000,000 *pesos fuertes* of silver went to the Crown of Spain as its share—"the royal fifth"—during the colonial period (1545–1825), and in the city that grew up at the foot of the fabulous mountain a royal mint was established as early as 1572.

Two Bolivian stamps portray the mountain Potosí, although no mention is made on them of the mining activities there. The first was the 1-centavo stamp in the 1916–17 series, the second, the 2-centavo stamp of 1931. In the 1938 airmail series, the 20-centavo stamp depicts the courtyard of the 18th century mint at Potosí, its massive arches suggestive of the strong vaults where the treasure was stored while awaiting shipment. It is interesting to note that now the production of tin from Potosí outranks that of silver, and that accumulations of slag from colonial days have been worked to reclaim their store of a metal vital for modern industry.

Mining as an industry has been the subject of two Bolivian stamps. In the series issued in 1925 as part of the celebration of the first centenary of independence, the 1-centavo stamp depicts symbolically a miner at work with his pick. A modern miner using a pneumatic drill deep in the fastnesses of the earth is shown on the 30-centavo stamp of the 1938 airmail series.

The exploitation of the mineral resources of Chile give it first rank in South America as a producer of copper, nitrate, and coal. It is fitting, therefore, that this country also should have issued two stamps with mining in general as their theme. The first, the 30-centavo stamp in the 1936 issue, shows a modern mountain mining camp framed by a huge conveyer and bear-

ing the legend *Minería* (Mining). The second, a 50-centavo stamp issued in 1938 and having the same legend, pictures a mining port.

In the development of the western United States the mining prospector played no small part, and his occasional spectacular rise to fabulous wealth and more frequent record of heart-breaking failure have been set down in history and romanticized in fiction. Recognition of his role in American expansion was given in the 50-cent stamp, entitled *Western Mining Prospector*, in the Trans-Mississippi Exposition issue of 1898.

Notwithstanding the fact that Mexico is one of the richest repositories of minerals in the Americas, that country has never advertised its mines or their products on stamps. Popocatepetl and Ixtaccíhuatl, the twin mountains that stand guard over Mexico City and that are affectionately remembered by all visitors to that capital, do, however, appear on two air mail stamps. Because the ascent of the former is still considered no mean feat, few who look on its majestic silhouette recall that during the early years of Cortés in Mexico, before the fall of Moctezuma and the complete conquest of the Aztec capital, Spanish soldiers availed themselves of the sulphur deposits in its crater for their ammunition. One of the designs is found in the 1929 series issued to commemorate the Mexican aviator, Capt. Emilio Carranza, who died in a plane crash on his return from a good will flight to the United States in 1928. The other picture of the two mountains is on the 75-centavo stamp in the 1934 series honoring the National University.

Of the precious metals, only gold and platinum have had stamps dedicated to them. Fittingly enough, three of the stamps devoted to gold come from Colombia, the land where the Spaniards first

heard the legend of El Dorado, the Golden Man. In the passage of time, the original meaning of the term has been perverted, until now it stands for any region of untold wealth. Colombia's production and exportation of gold exceeds that of any other South American country. In 1940, the output of gold amounted to nearly 632,000 fine ounces, almost all of which was exported to the United States. Practically the entire output comes from the golden sands of the Magdalena River and its tributaries.

In 1932 Colombia issued a series of five stamps to indicate its chief natural resources. The 10-centavo shows, above the legend *Minas de Oro* (Gold Mines), a miner, his pick by his side, holding a gold nugget. Three years later a similar stamp of the same denomination was printed, bearing the same legend and showing a miner resting, his pick between his knees. Gold itself is the theme of a 1932 airmail stamp (the 1- and 2-peso denominations), the central design showing gold coins pouring from a cornucopia, above which are crossed hammers over the word *Oro*.

In Ecuador, while there is large-scale exploitation of gold mines by companies with foreign capital, much of the precious metal is recovered from the streams by native placer miners. That phase of the industry is illustrated in a 1937 1-sucres stamp entitled *Lavaderos de Oro* (Gold Placers). On it is seen a man panning gold, while in the background, around a curve in the stream, another may be dimly discerned.

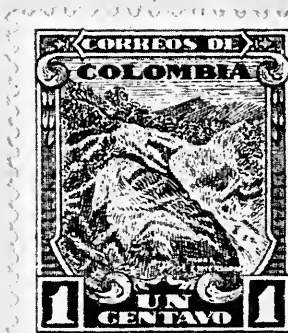
Peru, in addition to mentioning gold in the 1936 stamps described in an earlier paragraph, has another devoted to a specific gold region. It is the 5-sol denomination in the same series, which shows a mighty river and its tributaries as they flow through the eastern forest-clad slopes of the southern Peruvian Andes. The legend

tells us that it is the Inambari, an affluent of the Madre de Dios, which, with the Beni and the Mamoré, forms the Madeira River, part of the great Amazon River system: *Región de la selva virgen regada por el Inambari con ricos lavaderos de oro* (Region of virgin forest watered by the Inambari with rich gold deposits).

Platinum is another metal that, because of its comparative rarity and cost, has come to be considered as precious. More than half the world production is now recovered as a byproduct of nickel, copper, and gold ores; before its value was realized, it was thrown out with the dross. Colombia, which ranks fifth in world production of this metal, obtains its platinum from placer mining. Platinum is chiefly found in the Intendencia (Territory) of Chocó, in the northwest corner of the republic. In 1939, the latest year for which figures are available, the exports of placer platinum were 39,070 troy ounces. The 8-centavo stamp in the 1932 series depicting the natural resources of the country has as its subject platinum mines; it shows a dredge working on a river that flows through wide plains.

During most of the 19th century, Chile was the world's leading producer of copper; since 1881, when it yielded first place to the United States, it has ranked second. What is believed to be the largest copper deposit in existence, with over a billion tons of known and probable ore reserves, is situated at Chuquicamata, inland from the port of Antofagasta. Other important deposits occur throughout the mountain wall that is the eastern boundary of this "ribbon republic," but the mines worked today lie mainly in the northern and central portions of Chile. The 40-centavo stamp of the 1938-40 series, bearing the legend *Cobre* (Copper), shows a smelter in operation.

Chile also leads South America in the production of coal. Coal mining has been



STAMPS DEPICTING COLOMBIAN EMERALDS AND GOLD FROM COLOMBIA AND PERU



COPPER, PLATINUM, AND COAL

in progress in the Bay of Arauco (nearly 400 miles south of Valparaiso) since 1840, and expansion of the industry was stimulated by the construction of copper smelters, the building of railways, and the increased number of ships in Chilean ports requiring fuel. Although production in 1940 reached nearly 1,940,000 metric tons, this is insufficient to meet national requirements, and some coal must be imported.

The production records of the first large-scale producing mine in the country—the Lota—go back to 1852. In the 1936 anniversary series, therefore, this important phase of Chilean industry was commemorated on the 50-centavo stamp, which gives a view of the city of Lota, over the legend *Lota, Puerto Carbonero* (Lota, a Coal Port).

A third mineral, as a producer of which Chile stands preeminent, is natural nitrate; in fact, the country is unique in having the only commercially exploitable deposits known. From 1881 until after the First World War, when Chile supplied the world markets with this valuable element for fertilizer and for the explosive and chemical industries, the revenues from this one commodity were sufficient to meet a large proportion of government expenses. The utilization during the World War of a method of producing synthetic nitrate from the air had an unfavorable effect on the natural nitrate industry. However, improved mining and extraction methods have been devised to lower the cost of production, and Chilean nitrate is still in demand among farmers because it contains traces of various other elements which are said to add to its effectiveness as a fertilizer.

In 1930 Chile celebrated the centenary of the first shipment of its nitrate abroad, and issued three stamps stressing its value as a fertilizer. The 5-centavo stamp presents in a symbolic design the agricultural

uses of nitrate, and bears the legend *Salitre Significa Prosperidad* (Nitrate Means Prosperity). The 25-centavo stamp, with the same legend, shows a reaper holding a sheaf of wheat, and the 70-centavo stamp depicts a sower, silhouetted against the dawn of a new day.

Three stages in the progress of nitrate from raw material to finished product are shown on Chilean stamps. The first two are the lowest and highest denominations, respectively, in the series issued in 1936 to commemorate the fourth centenary of the discovery of Chile by picturing some of the natural resources of the country. The third is in the 1938–39 series, also devoted to that subject.

The 1936 5-centavo stamp depicts a part of the barren waste that lies between the Andes and the Pacific Ocean in northern Chile. The scene is entitled *Desierto de Atacama* (Atacama Desert). The 10-peso stamp illustrates one phase in the “mining” of nitrate—a great power shovel is scooping up chunks of the raw material from the surface. The 1938–39 20-centavo stamp shows a nitrate plant in full blast.

Petroleum is a mineral strictly modern in application. Although the exploitation of petroleum deposits in the United States and Mexico is of long standing, neither country has signaled its vast resources of that product on stamps. Five South American nations, on the other hand, have done so.

As regards Venezuelan petroleum deposits, a government official of that country spoke truly when he said that it had drawn a prize in the lottery of nature. Although systematic exploration and exploitation of this mineral have taken place only within the last quarter century, Venezuela now ranks first in the world among oil-exporting nations, and third in production. The existence of deposits has



CHILEAN NITRATE



PETROLEUM ON BOLIVIAN, ARGENTINE, VENEZUELAN, COLOMBIAN, AND PERUVIAN STAMPS

been proved in many parts of the country, but production is centered in two main regions: the jungles to the east, lying north of the Orinoco River and opposite the island of Trinidad, and the Lake Maracaibo basin, which includes all the state of Zulia and parts of several others. At the sites exploited on the shores of the lake, the vast forest of derricks marches down even into the water. Stamps of six denominations in the 1938 air-mail series show some of the derricks rising from the lake.

Colombia ranks second in petroleum production in South America. It was natural, therefore, that in the 1932 regular and air-mail series devoted to the resources of the country petroleum should be included. The 2-centavo stamp of the former pictures derricks and storage tanks over the legend *Petroleras* (oilfields), and the 15- and 60-centavo stamps of the latter have a different picture of the same subject, with the legend *Petróleo* (Petroleum). The 1935 2-centavo stamp is similar to that of the 1932 issue, but has greater detail.

The history of petroleum in Peru is of respectable antiquity, for there is evidence that this product was known to the Incas, who used it for medicinal purposes, for ritual illumination, and as an ingredient in mortar. For caulking vessels the Spaniards used *brea*, a pitch resulting from the evaporation of crude petroleum and obtained from surface exudations in regions now exploited for oil. Exploration for oil was begun in the northern coastal region of Peru in 1864, and production dates from the early 1870's. Later petroleum was discovered on the other side of the Andes, and camps have been established at the edge of the jungle to extract the oil and ship it down the Amazon.

In 1932 Peru issued a 4-centavo stamp showing an oil refinery, entitled *El*

Petróleo. A gusher in full activity was illustrated on another 4-centavo stamp, issued in 1936 and in 1937; its location is given in the legend, *Industria Petrolera, Talara* (Petroleum Industry, Talara).

Petroleum in Argentina is a state monopoly. Deposits are found in many parts of the country, especially in the eastern foothills of the Andes and along the Atlantic coast around Comodoro Rivadavia, the first place in Argentina where oil was discovered. The discovery was quite accidental: in putting down wells to provide an adequate water supply for the city, an oil gusher appeared on December 13, 1907. The single Argentine stamp dedicated to this product (50-centavo, 1936) shows the activity in this region: a derrick at the end of a pier, the picture being entitled *Pozo de Petróleo en el Mar* (An Oil Well in the Sea).

The vast petroleum deposits in eastern Bolivia are known to be exceedingly rich, but their exploitation has been hampered by lack of transportation. Highways to the oil fields are under construction, and recent agreements with Argentina provide for the financing of a pipeline across the border into and, equally important, for tariff exemptions on oil in transit across Argentine territory. The Bolivian stamp dedicated to oil, the 10-centavo denomination in the 1938 issue, gives a sense of the potential value of this industry by a skillful use of perspective in the delineation of three wells silhouetted against the sky.

Of precious stones, only one—the emerald—has been the subject of an American stamp. This has been regarded throughout the ages as one of the most desirable gems, and the discovery of rich emerald deposits in Colombia was a source of gratification to the Spanish conquistadors. That country now stands first in the world as a source of this universally admired clear green stone. The Colombian mines

are state-owned and the most important state-operated; however, the Muzo mine, the largest, has been closed for several years.

Unsold emeralds are stored in the vaults of the Bank of the Republic, in Bogotá. Seven high government officials are necessary to open these vaults; unless all seven are present, the precious store is wholly inaccessible.

Emerald mines are the subject of two Colombian stamps, the 1-cent stamp in the

1932 natural-resources issue, depicting verdant mountain slopes with the legend *Minas de Esmeraldas* (Emerald Mines), and a lithographed stamp of the same denomination that appeared in 1936, with the same scene less clearly printed. In the airmail stamps of the 1932 series the 3- and 5-peso stamps (the two highest denominations, appropriately enough) portray a flawless cut stone; from its color alone one would recognize it for what it is, without the identification *Esmeraldas*.

Inter-American Student Forum

Essay Competition

SUBJECT: What Inter-American Cooperation Means to My Country.

LENGTH: Not more than 700 words.

ELIGIBLE: All students of high-school grade in the United States.

CLOSING DATE: Not later than April 14, 1942.

GRAND AWARD: A four-year university scholarship, valued at \$6,000.00, providing tuition, travel, and all reasonable expenses at any college or university in the Western Hemisphere. At least two years must be spent at a Latin-American university or college.

STATE AWARDS: *First:* Fifty dollars and certificate of award.

Second: Twenty-five dollars and certificate of award.

Third: Silver medal.

Preparation

Use one side of the paper only. Papers may be typewritten or written with pen and ink. Each manuscript must bear the

name, school, and home address of the writer in the upper left-hand corner of the first page. The name of the school principal also should be given.

Submission of manuscripts

Each contestant should present his or her paper to the school principal or designated teacher on or before Pan American Day, April 14, 1942, with the request that it be entered in the Inter-American Student Forum competition.

Judging

A committee of local educators in each high school will be appointed by the superintendent or principal to select the two best papers.

The two best papers from each high school will be forwarded to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction (the Commissioner of Education) not later than May 1, 1942. The State Committee will forward to the Pan American Union the three best manuscripts from the State or Territory on or before May 21, 1942.

The Grand Prize winner for the United

States will be selected by a Board of Judges consisting of distinguished citizens from the other American Republics. These judges will be named by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, of which the Honorable Cordell Hull is Chairman. Only the one best paper from each State and Territory will be considered by the judges.

(Similarly, the Grand Prize winner for Latin America will be selected by a Board of Judges consisting of distinguished citizens of the United States.)

Information

All correspondence should be addressed to Inter-American Forum, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

Pan American Day—April 14, 1942

Program Material

To assist groups planning to observe Pan American Day, the Pan American Union offers the material listed below. Because of the limited supply, material can be sent only to teachers or group leaders, and only one copy of each item can be sent to the same address. Please order by number:

1. THE BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION. This issue of the BULLETIN is dedicated to Pan American Day. It is hoped that the articles on recent economic and social advances in the Americas will prove useful.
2. INTER-AMERICAN COOPERATION. How the spirit of mutual helpfulness has developed among the American Republics.
3. PAN AMERICAN DAY. Its origin and significance, and suggestions for its observance.
4. ASK ME ANOTHER! A series of questions on the American Republics. (Revised edition.)
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6. UNA VISITA A LA UNIÓN PANAMERICANA. A unit of five lessons in conversational Spanish for high school and elementary college classes.
7. UMA VISITA À UNIÃO PANAMERICANA. A unit of five lessons in conversational Portuguese for high school and elementary college classes.

Plays, Pageants, and Radio Presentations

8. A PAN AMERICAN FRIENDSHIP PARTY. A play, by Dorothy Kathryn Egbert, Library Assistant, Queens Borough Library, Jamaica, N. Y. Suitable for upper grades of elementary schools.
9. CHRIST OF THE ANDES. A play, by Eleanor Holston Brainard. Requires about 15 minutes to present. Suitable for sixth grade pupils.
10. FIESTA PANAMERICANA. Description of a carnival, representing a fiesta as it might take place in a Latin American country. Takes about one hour and a half to present. Suitable for senior high school, college, and adult groups.
11. GREAT NAMES IN LATIN AMERICAN HISTORY. By Emilio L. Guerra, Benjamin Franklin High School, New York. Arranged and presented originally as a radio sketch, but might also be offered as a high school assembly program. Requires about 15 minutes to present.
12. A TRIBUTE TO PAN AMERICA. By John Tansey and Daniel Montenegro. A radio program presented originally over Station WRUF of the University of Florida. Adapted to colleges and high schools equipped to present radio programs. Takes the form of a visit to the other American Republics, with musical interpolations. Requires one hour to present.

The observance of Pan American Day offers opportunities for the writing and presentation of original material in the form of plays and pageants. The Pan American Union would appreciate receiving the script and performance details of original creations.

Other publications

In addition to the foregoing, the following are also available at the prices indicated, to cover the cost of publication. Remittance should be made to the Pan American Union by check or money order:

PAN AMERICA IN POSTER STAMPS. A series of twenty-four poster stamps in color of the American Republics, with an album in which they may be mounted and preserved, and which contains a map and interesting data on the Americas. Single set of 24 stamps and album, 15 cents; twenty or more sets ordered at the same time and sent to the same address, 10 cents each.

FLAGS AND COATS-OF-ARMS OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS. Reproductions in color of the flags and coats-of-arms of the 21 republics, with a booklet containing a brief description and historical sketch of each. 10 cents.

THE AMERICAS—A PANORAMIC VIEW. Major historical facts, principal geographical features, forms of government, products and industries, transportation facilities and educational systems of the 21 American Republics. A 32-page illustrated booklet. 5 cents.

EXCERPTS FROM THE NATIONAL ANTHEMS OF THE 21 AMERICAN REPUBLICS. Piano arrangement, 25 cents; six-piece orchestration, including piano part, 50 cents.

It is suggested that individuals or groups planning Pan American Day programs consult their local public or school library for material prepared in previous years by the Pan American Union. It is also recommended that material requested this year be deposited in such libraries for possible use in future years.

Address all communications to the PAN AMERICAN UNION, Washington, D. C.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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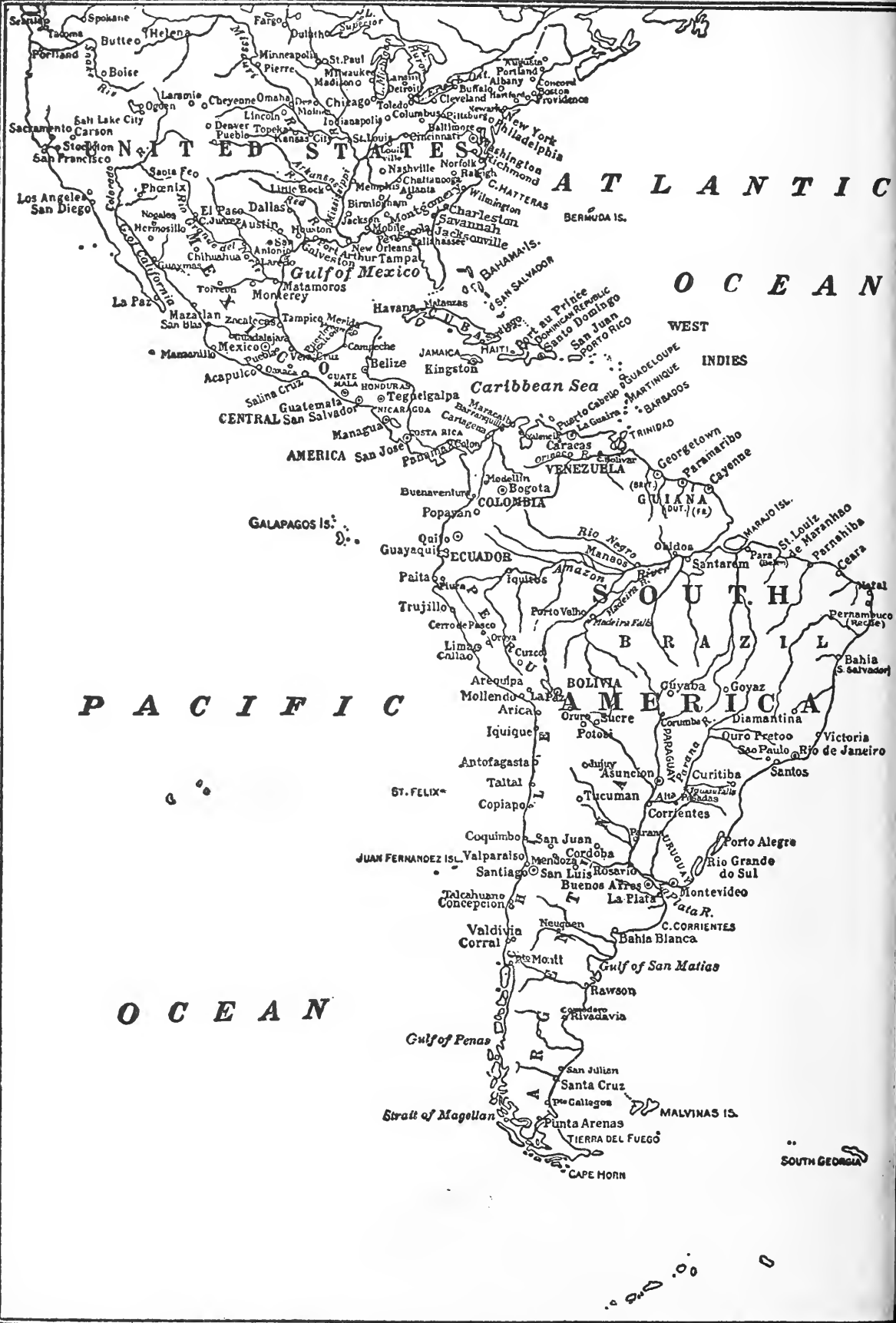
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POR LA AMERICA UNIDA

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ILLUSTRATION at side: GALLERY OF HEROES, PAN AMERICAN UNION





Photograph by Osuna

INTERIOR OF CHURCH AT TAXCO

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXVI, No. 3



MARCH 1942

Church Organs in Colonial Mexico

PÁL KELEMEN

THE expanding facilities of travel and communication are opening more and more remote parts of Latin America to the visitor, and an unexpected pageant of natural and cultural beauties is unfolding before him. Mexico is declared by many, not only from the Western Hemisphere but from the entire world, to be one of the most fascinating countries on earth; this writer, after repeated visits, can well understand such enthusiasm. But so great is the variety of important artistic remains there that the average traveler seldom gets beyond what strikes his eye and leaves countless treasures of the prehistoric past

As readers of the author's authoritative and enthralling paper on "Colonial Architecture in Guatemala" in the August 1941 issue of the BULLETIN will recall, he is a widely known art historian who turned some years ago from the study of early Christian art to the esthetic aspects of pre-Columbian and Colonial America. He has made several survey trips into the various areas of Latin America, to collect first-hand material for his forthcoming book on ancient American art.

The illustrations in this article, when not otherwise acknowledged, were furnished through the very courteous cooperation of Jorge Enciso, Director of Colonial Monuments of Mexico. The musicological notes were assembled by Elisabeth Kelemen.

and the Colonial era unnoticed, hidden behind the veil of his ignorance.

In the past fifteen years, Mexico has accomplished a most praiseworthy task in cataloguing the great ruins of its pre-Columbian civilization and the relics of its Colonial centuries. Under the able and farsighted leadership of Dr. Alfonso Caso, the Instituto Nacional de Antropología e Historia has undertaken to make photographs and collect data in preparation for a comprehensive series of publications, a project now in part effected. This Institute, modern in method and apparatus, receives the visiting scholar with courtesy and cooperation. The corpus of pictures which has been accumulated discloses an unimaginable wealth in architecture, sculpture, painting, and the applied arts. But these photographs are so numerous and cover such a vast field that it will be years before even all the high lights can be published.

The Colonial churches of Mexico alone provide the art historian with material for

lifelong study. It was natural that in the 16th and 17th centuries the growing importance of the colony, one of the richest in the Americas, should have found expression in its ecclesiastical buildings and their interior furnishings. It was, in any event, an epoch of flourishing artistic activity in the Old World. In Spain, builders such as Juan de Herrera and José de Churriguera were executing their great compositions in stone, while Juan Martínez Montañés and Pedro de Mena were carving statuary of such impressive realism that their influence lasted for centuries. Many works of art were commissioned in Spain for the colonies, and Spanish artists sometimes remained in the New World for years, providing the imposing churches and dignified palaces with the fruits of their talents, as high in standard as those in the mother country. Among such manifestations, little known and seldom noticed, are the Colonial organs which ask emphatically for our attention.

The organ as an instrument goes back



FIGURE 1. ORGAN AT SANTO DOMINGO, ZACATECAS

to the pre-Classical Greek civilization and, later, in the Roman centuries, its loud and penetrating tone filled the circus with an accompaniment appropriate to the robust entertainments there. The earliest organs, however, used water power, as the Greek name *hydraulos* implies. The first pneumatic organ of which anything is known is pictured on an obelisk of A. D. 393 as a small instrument with its bellows compressed by the weight of two youths standing on top. Byzantium was the first organ-building center in the Middle Ages, and from this city organs as well as treatises on organ building were exported to Europe.¹

Spain developed its own liturgy, independent of the rest of Europe, from the time of its conversion to Christianity, and can boast an individual tradition of music as well. As early as the 13th century, Alfonso X is said to have established a chair of music at the University of Salamanca, and, in 1517, Charles V founded the *Real Capilla de Música*.²

Organs were made in Spain as early as the 5th century. By the turn of the millennium, these instruments had grown very large and were sometimes so powerful that the townsfolk are said to have had to stop their ears when they were played; but they were still primitive, with only a few notes, held down by the fist, and used to accompany plain song. It was not until the 13th century that the projecting levers (forerunners of our keys), which could be worked by separate fingers, were invented. There were then about three octaves on the manual. The organ was the first instrument to become entirely chromatic, although at first not all the semitones were present. With the coming of the Renaissance, a number of technical improvements were made, effecting greater ease in

¹ Sachs, Curt: "The History of Musical Instruments," New York, 1940.

² Esclava, F.: "Música Religiosa en España," Madrid, 1860.



Photograph by Bravo

FIGURE 2. DETAIL OF CHOIR STALLS, CATHEDRAL, MEXICO

handling and a finer quality of tone, so that by the end of the 16th century, when the organ was introduced into the New World, it was already the queen of instruments. The great organ of Seville, said to date from that period, has 110 stops and 5,300 pipes.

The Spanish organs had certain individual features, most of which were carried over into the colonies. They were generally placed on the wide "screens" or galleries which enclosed the choir of Spanish churches. The tiers of projecting horizontal pipes—with their inevitable suggestion of fanfare—are quite peculiar to this country, as are also the grotesque faces that utilize the slits of the pipes as open mouths, frequently found even on the most ornate and suavely decorated instruments. The pedal organ, which

probably developed from the "drone note" peculiar to pneumatic instruments, notably the bagpipe, was neglected, except in Germany, until well into the 18th century.³ This might account for the lack of this feature in many of the organs shown here.

The early 18th century saw the culmination of the organ as a musical instrument. The few extant Baroque organs which can be heard today are characterized by a sweet, mild tone, sometimes quite reedy, like a great choir of woodwinds. Polyphonic effects are amazingly clear and untangled, with none of the "smear" and stridency frequent in modern, motor-driven mechanisms. Serene and without sensual effects, they present a straightforward musical line.

³ Hopkins, E. J.: *"The Organ, its History and Construction,"* London, 1855.



FIGURE 3. ORGAN IN THE CHURCH OF SANTA ROSA, QUERÉTARO

Until the 17th century, religious music in Spain kept to the antiphonal and to the playing and singing of hymns. Medieval musical forms persisted until the 18th century, and then, when the rest of the world was being carried away by the theatrical, Spanish religious music returned to the neo-plain song.⁴ Various accompanying instruments with separate parts appear in the church about this time: harps, strings, clarinets, flutes, and sackbuts. In Mexico, however, the use of flutes and trumpets was forbidden because of their association with earlier pagan ceremonies.

Although the colonies of New Spain,

vying with one another in achievements, naturally spent lavishly on their organs, resplendent in tone as well as architecture, the medieval tradition still lingered in the small, undecorated, portable instruments. Convenient for choir practice, mission work, and the plain chant of the monks, they were used for a long time in communities of no great wealth or size, even after built-in and extensive organs appeared.

Figure 1 shows such an instrument, now standing in the choir loft of the Church of Santo Domingo in the town of Zacatecas. Silver mining made this settlement an important center, and its rights as a township were established as early as 1585. The fact that the Church of Santo Domingo was not founded until some 150 years later does not necessarily mean that the organ also dates from that time. It could easily have been used in an earlier church and transported to its present location in later years. It rests on a simply carpentered stand. Behind it, the bellows are clearly visible, with heavy weights on them to compress the air. The several rows of small tubes, like series of Panpipes, contrast interestingly with the single row of gigantic "show pipes" displayed in the "grand organ." The keyboard below does not yet cover four full octaves, but the semitones are already raised and placed as in our modern manual. A few stops for the modulation of the tone are apparent, and the rods with threads above the keyboard give a glimpse into the intricate mechanism. The instrument's case, with an undecorated cross on top as the only ornament, is modesty itself. It is a piece that breathes the air of the ascetic centuries of early missionary zeal rather than the epoch of Baroque richness that flourished in the colonies. It is interesting to note that in 1527, only a few years after the Conquest, Friar Pedro de Gante initiated the Indians of his fold into the man-

⁴ Hamilton, Mary N.: "Music in 18th Century Spain," University of Illinois, 1937.

ufacture of musical instruments at the Convent of San Francisco at Texcoco.

The atmosphere of the late Renaissance lingers in the detail illustrated in Figure 2, a section of the choir stalls of the Cathedral of Mexico.⁵ This horseshoe structure stands in the middle of the church, closed off by a tombac grille topped with crosses and candelabra. Fifty-nine stalls, exquisitely carved of cedar, outline the lower choir, the work of Juan de Rojas, 1655. Above each seat, between twisted columns, there is a saint in high relief, about two feet tall and recognizable from his characteristic symbols. Here generations of clerics, thumbing the parchment pages of the giant antiphonaries, prayed and sang under the guidance of their superiors. In early morning and late evening the service was held by candle illumination, but in the sunny hours the light shone through the cupola, bringing a glow and brilliance to the saints of the choir. Each stall has his hour in the passing day when the marching sun throws its rays upon him.

The classically solid woodcarving exemplified by these choir stalls loosened into exuberance in a later century. After the old style, which held to an organized and controlled pattern-world, striving for balance and continuity, had produced all the variations and modulations within its possibilities, a new style came into being, which pursued different ideals. The small positive, or "set-down," organ from the Church of Santa Rosa in Querétaro (Figure 3) is gloriously Baroque. The pipes are not hidden, as in Figure 1, but prominently displayed and their different lengths and calibers used to excellent decorative effect—a solution which, as we shall see, is later developed into a most

important and imposing feature. The organ still represents, however, a big box for music, and the wooden case receives more attention than the instrument itself. The opulent, carved cornices, shells, medallions, garlands, and the standing figure on the crest all attract the eye first through their striking plastic quality. When not in use, the keyboard was enclosed by a panel (see center of base), bearing a fine, heart-shaped medallion, corresponding to those on either side, to give an unbroken pattern. Much of the top section is covered by a lacy screen of carved wood, a decorative feature restricted to a minimum in later organs. The tiers of horizontal pipes (now lost

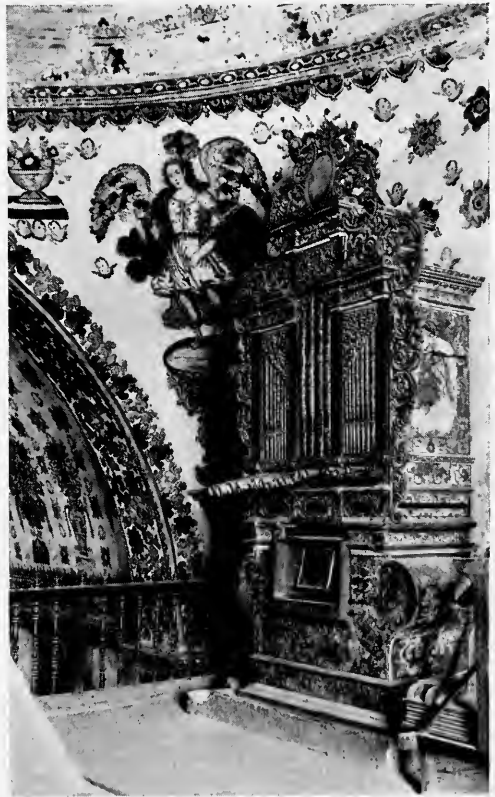
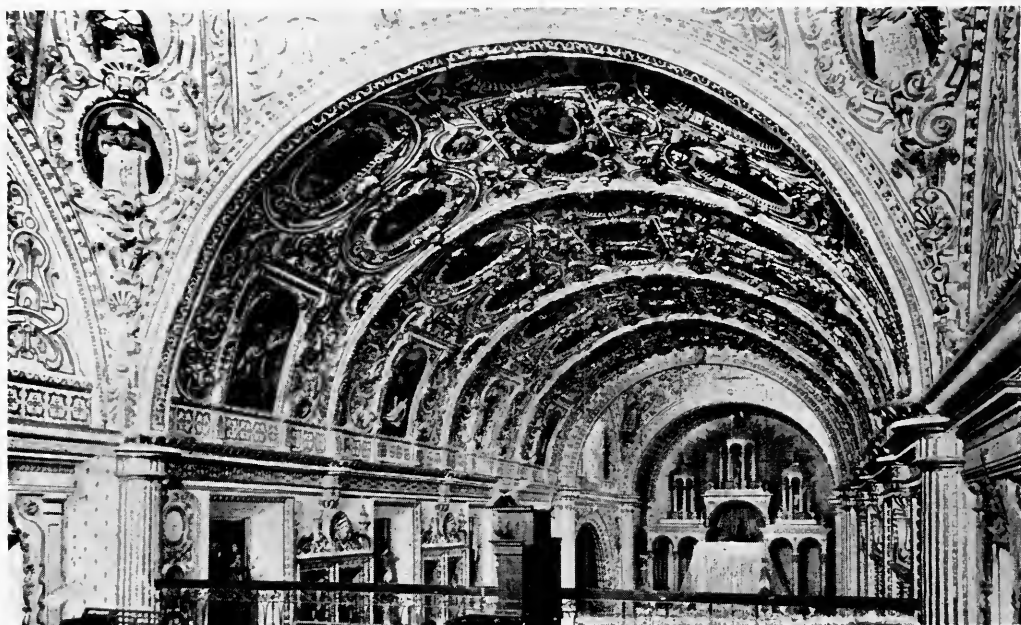


FIGURE 4. ORGAN AT TLACOHUAYA, OAXACA

⁵ First published in "Battlefield of the Gods" by Pál Kelemen, London, 1937. Another beautiful example of the same art, the choir stalls in the Cathedral of Lima, was illustrated in the November 1941 number of this BULLETIN.



Photograph by Osuna

FIGURE 5. INTERIOR OF SANTO DOMINGO, OAXACA

except for four or five) between the curling shells at the sides must have made a harmonious unit in themselves.

In contrast to the carved Querétaro organ, painting constitutes the chief embellishment of the instrument at Tlacocha-huaya, a village near Oaxaca (Figure 4). A lively floral pattern covers front and sides, and even ornaments the vertical show pipes. The only figural element is an angel with a viol, placed in a medallion on the side. The charming, 18th-century provincial style of the decoration is in keeping with the interior of the church. It can be easily understood that what was carved and gilded in the larger and richer churches would, in a less well-to-do community, be suggested in paint. Here the carving retreats to the flowing garlands around the frame, which relieve the box-like contours of the instrument. A single row of horizontal pipes is, in this case, almost intact, and the bellows, which had

to be pumped constantly while the instrument was being played, stand at the right. The position of the keyboard is undisguised and there are fourteen stops—a large number for such a small piece.

A shell of a miniature instrument of similar style, only about a yard wide but charmingly painted and with indications of a few pedal notes, stands in the gallery of the little church at Tule, also near Oaxaca. Another beautiful and little known example, still in good condition, is in the Bello collection at Puebla.

These instruments, in their fusion of woodcarving, plasterwork, and paint, are examples of that most elaborate school of decoration, Baroque, which flourished in the 17th and 18th centuries. This style, which in the neo-Classistic rage of the 19th century was absolutely misrepresented by shortsighted and stubborn esthetes, only now is coming to its deserved revaluation. Its delight in rich decora-

tion, its exuberant blending of shapes drawn from fantasy with those from life, is today recognized as the artistic expression of an epoch which had outgrown all artistic canons which preceded it.

In the little church just discussed, the influence of the nearby city of Oaxaca makes itself felt. The province of Oaxaca, of which it is the capital, was immediately recognized by the Spaniards as a district of great mineral wealth and agricultural possibilities. In fact, Cortés selected it for his own domain, receiving the title of Marqués de la Valle de Oaxaca.

Figure 5 shows a view from the organ loft of the Church of Santo Domingo at Oaxaca. The patrons of the Faith here wanted their church unrivaled in beauty and their ambition resulted in one of the most splendid examples of Mexican Baroque. The great barrel-arched ceiling is covered in every part with heavily gilded, stucco ornaments and polychrome sculptures in high relief. Paintings on canvas are interspersed, creating an effective contrast. Much of the adjacent monastery was destroyed during the French Intervention, but the church proper makes even today an overwhelming impression. The Zapotec and Mixtec cultures of pre-Columbian times had evolved here barbarous and stupendous edifices; Christianity also felt the power of these regions and produced in this district a style surpassing the Baroque of the motherland in splendor.

Another local school of decoration, from a somewhat later time but not one iota less lavish, is seen in the interior view of the church at Taxco (frontispiece). This town is well known to every tourist, and holds an outstanding place among Mexico's rich sites for its picturesque position and fine architecture. While the church at Oaxaca represents the most luxuriant decoration that international taste would recognize as good Baroque, that of Taxco

is nearer to the Rococo. The voluptuous curves in the ovals, scrolls, and shells have given way to notched lines and faceted projections. Even in the composition of the retables a certain change is noticeable. The church, as superb outside as in, was built by the famous mining magnate, José de la Borda, and was finished in 1757. This late date accounts, to a considerable degree, for the stylistic differences between it and the Oaxaca church, which seems to have been completed at least seventy years earlier. Although the organ standing in the gallery above the main entrance of the Taxco church was not erected until 1806, because of the congenial manner of its decoration it blends into the interior. Even the angel statuettes and the lantern-shaped bell-racks at the side are in harmony. However, the approach of neo-Classicism is discernible in the more sober application of Rococo paraphernalia, and particularly in the bust medallions, four of which are in the hanging garlands which cover the columns between the show pipes, with a fifth in the peak of the instrument. A great flowery rug from the Orient is said to have covered the whole of the nave. With the magnificent decoration of the church, its sparkling crystal chandeliers, and the glittering priestly garb, the pomp of a high mass must have been highly operatic, a scene for a Mozart or a Cherubini.

On the site where the city of Puebla now stands there has been, ever since pre-Columbian times, a powerful settlement. Even now it has its own character, and its different intellectual atmosphere makes it a delightful change after cosmopolitan Mexico. Figure 7 brings a view, seldom noticed, of the Cathedral there, one of the most imposing buildings in the country. The main part, finished in mid 17th century, is somewhat reserved in general effect. Massive Renaissance surfaces appear, interrupted by characteristic early



Photograph by Osuna

FIGURE 6. INTERIOR, CATHEDRAL OF PUEBLA



Photograph by Osuna

FIGURE 7. CORNER OF CATHEDRAL OF PUEBLA



FIGURE 8. GRAND ORGAN, CATHEDRAL OF MEXICO

Baroque decoration. The tiled lantern on the dome bears proud testimony to the fact that the region produced the finest majolica.

Inside, two imposing organs flank the nave, their cases carved by Pedro Muñoz, who is said to have devoted two years to the task. Figure 6 shows the instrument

at the left. It has all the attributes of the monumental organ that reached its height in the 18th century. The pipes are not subordinated to their musical purpose but step forward as a part of the decoration and serve to enhance the plastic effect. The three rows of vertical pipes overpower the single bristling line of those arranged

in horizontal sequence below them. Angelic musicians are perched about the façade as if on a retable. Especially noteworthy is the figure at the top, extreme left, playing the 'cello—an instrument which approached its present-day form at that time. The wood carving on the framework is restrained and in keeping with the dignified atmosphere of this interior, where the sheen of gilded grilles makes a pleasing contrast to the many canvases.

The Cathedral of the Mexican capital is not only the largest Catholic church in the Republic but perhaps on the whole continent. Its twin towers are visible from afar, and, within, the vaulted ceiling reaches a height of 178 feet; the width is proportionate. In this vast structure two organs were erected on the galleries that separate the nave from the side aisles. They have generally been considered of European

origin, but recent evidence seems to indicate that they were made in Mexico. *La Gaceta* of October 1736 mentions their dedication.⁶ The cases are of unvarnished cedar, exquisitely carved, and present a lavish display of the sculptor's art, framing the metallic beauty of the pipes. The great mass of the instruments, said to contain some thirty-five hundred pipes, did not carry much figural decoration, and what was applied was placed high or was blended into the architecture of the base (Figure 8). Not only is the total effect magnificent, but any of the details are worthy of study.

A closer view of the other organ, showing the center part above the railing (Figure 9), reveals that the smallest motif received the same loving care as the large

⁶ Hernández, F. J.: "Órganos de la Nueva España," in "Hoy," No. 109, Mexico, 1939.



FIGURE 9. ORGAN DETAIL, CATHEDRAL OF MEXICO

three-dimensional statues of the angels. The faces painted on the pipes, a Spanish characteristic, can be plainly seen. The huge organ, with its extraordinary dimensions, its doors into the interior, and its suggestion of grilled windows, gives the impression of a veritable house of music.

These majestic instruments, few of which are in use today, were built by inspired artists and devoted artisans. Their velvety and celestial tone belongs to an era,

now past, when advancing science seemed to presage the enlightenment of man. Instead, today, through the misuse of that power, brute and cynical forces threaten to rob the world of the liberties for which it has toiled through centuries. These silenced organs, standing in dignity and beauty through much turmoil, are monuments of hope for a brighter future, in which mankind will recover its love for the arts and its humanitarian values.

A Geographic Traverse

Across the Eastern and Central Cordilleras of Colombia

RAYMOND E. CRIST

Introduction

THE Eastern and Central Cordilleras of Colombia, two of the three main ranges that branch off north of the Ecuadorean Andes at the Pasto massif, parallel each other in a north-northeast direction and, together with the Western Cordillera and the Cordillera de Chocó, form the western part of Colombia.

In few places in the world is it possible to cross as many climatic, geological, and ecological zones in so short a distance, as in going from the Llanos of Colombia to the Cauca River. The importance of motor roads in connecting totally different regions is readily appreciated in this jaunt from the hot, low-lying Llanos up the eastern face of the Cordillera Oriental to the Savanna of Bogotá, with its mild to cold

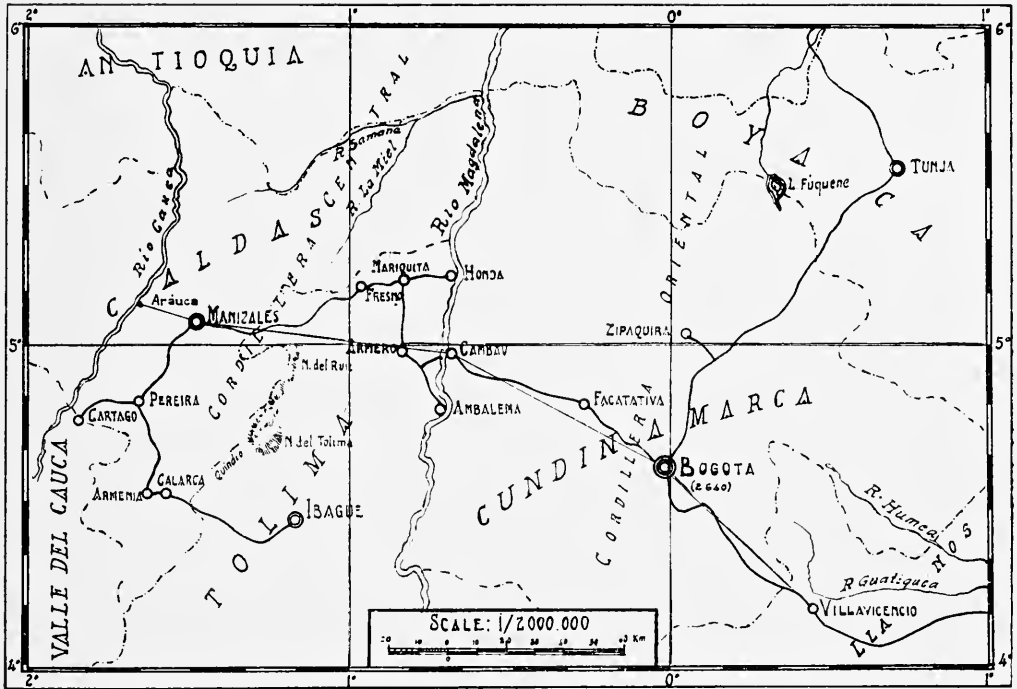
climate, down the steep western slope to the *tierra caliente* (hot country) of the Magdalena Valley, thence through the pass across the high, narrow Cordillera Oriental, and down to another area of *tierra caliente* along the Cauca River. In 150 miles one crosses on a relatively good gravel road two passes that are higher than any of the famous Alpine passes.

Cultural traverse Villavicencio-Bogotá-Camboia

The vast grass plains, or Llanos, of Colombia, like those of Venezuela, are regions *par excellence* for the grazing of cattle; but little has been or is being done to improve the natural grasses or the breed of cattle.

Since the construction of the Villavicencio-Bogotá motor road the growing of rice has become important in certain areas of the Llanos. As time goes on, this intensive agricultural activity will probably be

The field work on which this study is based was made possible by grants from the John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation and the Graduate Research Board of the University of Illinois.



Courtesy of Raymond E. Crist

MAP SHOWING THE AUTHOR'S TRAVERSE ACROSS THE EASTERN AND CENTRAL CORDILLERAS OF COLOMBIA

as important as the extensive one of grazing.

Villavicencio itself is a typical "gateway to the Llanos" town. Since the building of the motor road to Bogotá, it has become a popular resort, whither people from the chill climate of the capital come to *veranear*, to spend the week-end or even longer in a warm climate. A few ranchers and majordomos have town houses here. There are several large mills that hull the rice grown on the Llanos. (The heavy consumption of polished rice on the part of the native population is not conducive to robust health.) The town is also a collecting center for the hides of alligators, wild hogs, and jaguars, and the pelts of the nutria or tropical otter. Cattle being driven to the Bogotá market usually spend at least a night in the fenced pastures on

the low deforested hills on the outskirts of this town. It is cheaper to walk the cattle to market—a five-day trip during which each steer loses from 60 to 75 pounds—than to truck them over the mountains.

Here at Villavicencio the grasslands of the plains give way to the dense rain forest of the foothills, which have been cleared and planted in grass for some years. Even the stumps and fallen logs of the original forest have rotted away. The process of forest destruction by the shifting agriculturalists is going on all along the road from Villavicencio for some 15 kilometers up the eastern slope of the Cordillera. Along the road are stacked up great piles of fire wood, the usual cash crop of the *conuquero*, or subsistence farmer. At the contact with the Quetame

metamorphics, the tiny subsistence plots—corn and yuca are the usual crops—are no longer to be seen. The soil is so poor and the slopes are so steep that not even one crop can be grown on it. This is probably in part due to the complete absence of limestone beds. The one-lane road is for miles just a notch cut in the side of the mountain, and there is a sheer drop of from 1 to 200 meters to the Negro River below. Into this complex the river has been able to incise a fine V-shaped gorge, but lateral erosion is out of the question.

A few miles before reaching Cáqueza the whole aspect of the landscape changes abruptly. Here, upstream from the wall of extremely hard rocks which it is about to enter, the river is seen to be aggrading; there are no longer any forests on the slopes, and the densely populated area is one of dispersed settlements. The soft limestones and shales make an excellent soil, which fortunately the rainfall is not heavy enough to erode as fast as it is

formed. Furthermore, the area is largely in the hands of industrious owner-operators who are interested in conserving their land. Families are large; hence, agriculture has to be largely of the subsistence rather than the market variety, because the plots are small. But great care is taken with every square inch of land; some terracing is done, and eucalyptus trees are planted along boundary lines. They are valuable for fuel, and the roots help prevent erosion. Some few farmers have cows; most of them have a hog or two which are fed on scraps. Animal fertilizer is used when available. To the tiny market village of Cáqueza the farmers bring their meager surplus in exchange for a few necessities, such as salt and cloth.

As the road climbs to the pass into the Bogotá Basin there are fewer and poorer farms, because of the cold climate and infertile soil. Most of the poverty-stricken farmers add a few centavos to their ex-



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

TYPICAL VIEW OF THE LLANOS NEAR SAN MARTIN



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

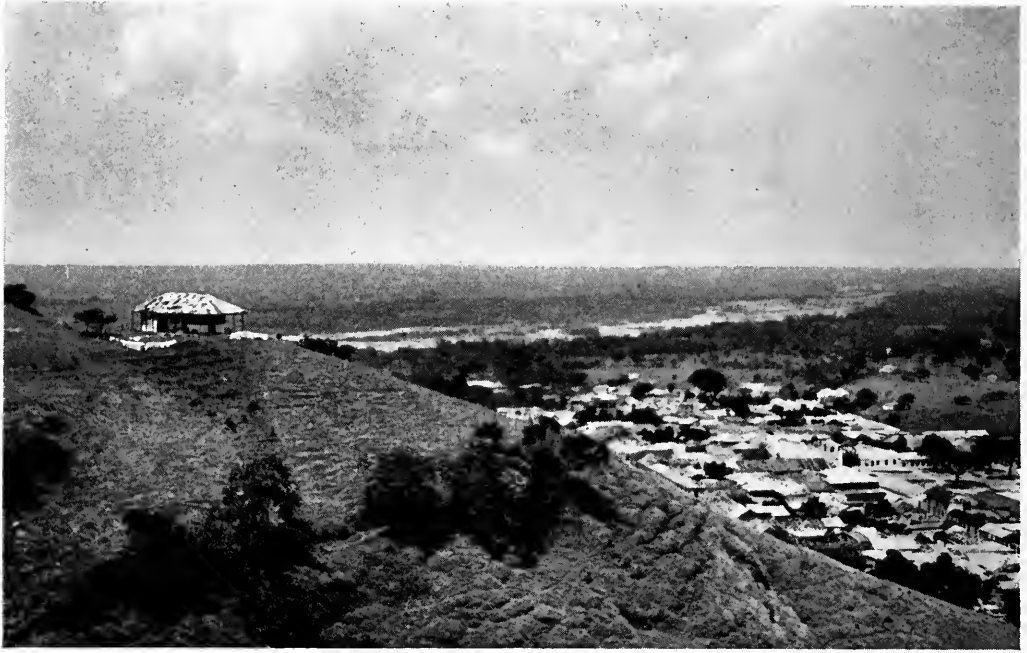
SIERRA NEVADA DEL RUIZ FROM THE PÁRAMO ZONE ALONG THE MARIQUITA-MANIZALES ROAD

tremely low income by making charcoal out of the gnarled trees and shrubs which are able to grow at that elevation. Many mule-pack trains loaded with charcoal are passed on the road. It is particularly regrettable that in a country relatively rich in coal and petroleum the forest cover is being so rapidly destroyed for fuel. It would certainly be better in the long run to move the marginal population or pay it a dole rather than have whole drainage basins denuded of their forest cover. This is a problem which the national government will ultimately have to solve.

From the pass there is a magnificent view of the beautiful modern city of Santa Fe de Bogotá (altitude 8,600 feet), and the flat, fertile Savanna of Bogotá beyond. The town has grown long and narrow in a north-south direction along the eastern edge of the basin, avoiding the flat, poorly drained area farther out on the Savanna. The city is a nodal point in the present

system of roads; here those from the Llanos, from the cold plateau to the north around Tunja, and from the valleys of the Cauca and Magdalena, come together. The city is not only a commercial capital, but the center of the cultural and political life of the table land and its tributary areas. Bogotá is a city of contrasts. The most modern of modernistic buildings (neotechnic) are only a few squares from colonial dwellings or even adobe huts of the pre-Conquest type. The Andalusian houses, with their ample patios, not at all suited to the chill, often damp, climate, are giving way in the suburbs to modern steep-roofed houses of the English or Dutch type.

One of the most striking examples of the reversal of pattern in an urbo-rural cultural landscape as a result of land concentration in a few hands is to be seen in the environs of Bogotá. A few families have for generations controlled almost all the



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

VILLAVICENCIO FROM ONE OF THE DEFORESTED FOOTHILLS

The braided Guatiquía River appears in the background.

land of the Savanna, with the result that all the fertile alluvial soil is in grass. Fine modern suburban residences or apartment buildings are within a stone's throw of extensively exploited pasturelands. The minutely subdivided and intensively cultivated fields of the small landholders are often on less fertile and more steeply sloping hill lands many miles from the market, and produce must be transported across the extensively exploited pasturelands to the city. In this way the influence of the manorial land tenure system still makes itself keenly felt in the economic development of a great modern city.

From Bogotá to Facatativá the road runs through rich grazing lands, alluvial flats across which meanders the canal-like Bogotá River. Only by cutting through the hard Upper Cretaceous sandstone bed at the Tequendama Falls, on the western

edge of the Cordillera, will this river be able to dissect the Savanna.

Although the western slope of the Cordillera Oriental is geologically similar to the eastern for some distance, the economy is different. The effect of the long-established wagon road is seen in the fact that farmers raise more crops for the market than they grow exclusively for their own use. There are numerous large coffee haciendas from which formerly the high-grade crop was sent directly to Europe. This area has been hard hit by the dislocation of trade induced by the war, which may have the effect of disintegrating these vast absentee holdings. On truck farms vegetables and fruits are grown for the Bogotá market. A few hotels have been built to accommodate week-end tourists from Bogotá, who seek some days of warm weather.

Cultural response in the Magdalena Valley

Of recent years the Magdalena floodplain has been extensively used in the production of rice, for the growing of which conditions are ideal. Streams from the Cordillera Central are diverted from their beds to the fields located on the floodplain. A great deal (155 tons in 1922) of this rice is exported from Mariquita.¹ The increase in domestic production of rice has been paralleled by a corresponding decrease in imports. Cotton has also been produced in this area; but after a bumper crop or so pests destroy the plants. The floodplain would seem to be ideally suited to large scale scientific production of warm climate fruits and vegetables for the Bogotá market, but neither the capital nor labor necessary for such an enterprise seems to be available.

¹ García, Antonio: "Geografía Económica de Colombia—Caldas," *Imprenta Nacional, Bogotá. 1937, p. 523*

The main activity on the floodplains now is the fattening of steers for the Bogotá market. However, Mr. Long, who has a 6,400-acre ranch near Cambao, finds that competition with the ranches along the Lower Magdalena is getting keener every day. The ranches of that region have an abundance of free unfenced land and practice a kind of transhumance of their stock from higher lands in the wet season to the lush pastures in meander scars in the dry season. Under such conditions operation costs are so low that the upper Magdalena ranchers, if they wish to survive, will probably be forced to specialize in better breeds of quick-maturing cattle, or dairies may have to be established, as in the Cauca Valley.

The hills of Miocene conglomerates and tuff rise abruptly from the floodplain, and give an inselberg aspect to the landscape. Because of the permeability of these forma-



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

DISPERSED SETTLEMENTS ACROSS THE RÍO NEGRO FROM CÁQUEZA

The soil here is made by decomposed limestone and shale.

tions they are covered with a xerophytic vegetation, in marked contrast to the luxuriant green of the pastures on the floodplain itself. Goats put in their appearance as a response to these spotty semi-arid conditions, and are a nuisance to the farmers, who try to raise small unfenced patches of corn or soybeans.

Although the Magdalena is generally a sprawling, meandering stream, it has locally entrenched itself in one of the Miocene outliers at the village of Cambao, where Bogotá-Manizales motor traffic is ferried across the river. It would not be difficult to build a suspension bridge across the constricted river at this point.

Cultural traverse across the Cordillera Central

Between Mariquita and kilometer 600 the metamorphics, predominantly phyllites with igneous intrusions, have been decomposed or lateritized to depths ranging from 1 or 2 to 15 or 20 meters and make an

excellent soil. This whole area, maturely dissected, is in slopes. The road runs for miles along the stream divides. The streams in their lower courses, near the temporary base level of the Magdalena, aggrade during the torrential rains. As one reaches their steeper parts two distinct terrace levels are noted, the alluvial deposits probably laid down during the period of greatest extension of the Pleistocene glaciers.

This area has passed through the first stage of the shifting agriculturalist—deforestation and cropping by primitive methods. It is now in the relatively permanent second or pasture stage. The original settler moves on; the small clearings, if not already owned by ranchers, are bought by them, planted in grass, and pastured. The former rain forest becomes grassland and, with a small amount of clearing occasionally, grassland it remains.

At an elevation of about 3,000 meters



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

GORGE THROUGH LIMESTONES AND SHALES, UPSTREAM FROM CÁQUEZA



Courtesy of Colombian Embassy, Washington

AVENIDA JIMÉNEZ QUESADA, BOGOTÁ

In celebration of Bogotá's fourth centenary in 1938 a new avenue was made and named for the founder of the city. Along it have risen many business blocks of the most modern architecture.

the forest cover is quite dense on the thick layer of volcanic ash which has blanketed the area. This ash is highly porous, rainfall is heavy, and the topsoil is readily leached. But the temperature is still high enough to further rapid decomposition of vegetation and thus prevent the accumulation of humus. Only in the sheltered valleys from around 3,500 meters to the upper limit of cultivation is there a deep fertile soil, rich in humus because of the slow rate of decomposition. But here temperature is so low as to make farming precarious. The same kind of volcanic-ash deposit in the relatively mild climate of Naples or Catania disintegrates into a soil capable of supporting a dense population.

The ash-blanketed area between 3,000 and 3,500 meters in elevation is being feverishly deforested by shifting agriculturalists who work from 5 to 10 acres of land, which becomes productive almost as soon as the trees are felled. Unfortunately, these plots lose their fertility rapidly, are abandoned, and become a prey to erosion. The *conquero* invests all he has—his small savings, if any, and the labor of himself and his family—in his clearing, and before the first crop, supports the family unit by making charcoal or by selling logs or construction lumber. The rapid destruction of this forest is due to the presence of the completed motor road. None of this agricultural activity was noted at the same



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

LOOKING EAST FROM THE FLOODPLAIN OF THE MAGDALENA RIVER AT CAMBAO

The field in the foreground is planted to rice, an important crop.

elevation and on the same soil along the unfinished road to Termales—which is much nearer to Manizales. The earth-covered, slowly smouldering piles of wood, from which smoke issued in small columns, resembling a fumarole, dotted the landscape between Fresno and Esperanza.

At first the economy of the *conqueros* is a closed one, hence the emphasis on subsistence and quick growing crops. Little by little they experiment with other crops adapted to the particular climate. As they come into contact with the city market, through improved transportation facilities, they find they can sell a variety of crops, particularly fruits and vegetables, and are able to avoid the dangers of monoculture. But they are somewhat limited in their choice of crops by the climatic "low ceiling." There is a tendency for

the modern farmer in this area to specialize in crops according to their adaptability to a given climate and to the demands of the market. But for the region as a whole it will be necessary for many people either to emigrate or to acquire land—and be secure in their tenure. The State is interested in seeing that the people have land, but this is not true of all those with large estates. Unfortunately for many landless but willing workers, the large landowner is often able to show that he is not only a more efficient producer, but a more "stable element" than the small settler.

For the last fifteen miles before entering Manizales the underlying rock is again the old weathered metamorphics. This maturely dissected area has also been completely deforested, but the slopes are cov-

ered with grass instead of gullies. The traveller is reminded of certain parts of the Bluegrass Region or the South Downs in this dairy region tributary to Manizales. The cows graze in the field the year round, being brought to the stalls only for milking. Dairies farther up the Cauca, distant from markets, sell butter and cheese. Indeed, domestic cheeses of various and excellent flavors are an important source of income in many parts of Colombia.

The same maturely dissected landscape continues westward beyond Manizales, but pastures give way to cropped fields. The presence of these crops—particularly coffee and plantains—together with a marked rise in temperature heralds the change in climate. Between Manizales and the crossing of the Cauca River at Arauca lies the boundary zone between *tierra templada*

and *tierra caliente*. The small streams begin to aggrade in their lower courses, and terrace remnants appear a few meters above the present stream levels. Then the road runs onto the extensive terraces about 300 meters above the present level of the Cauca. These fertile land areas in *tierra caliente* are to a large extent used as grazing lands rather because the good land was originally held in great estates than because cattle grazing is their most efficient use. Abruptly the road leaves the terrace and descends rapidly. Another terrace level is seen about 10 meters above the Cauca, just below which is an outcrop of basalt through which the superimposed river has cut a gorge. These narrows, like those at Cambao, on the Magdalena, make an ideal site for crossing the river, over which a suspension bridge has been



built. The tiny village of Arauca, which had its boom days during the building of the Cali-Medellín railroad, is a kind of ghost town in which there are far too many saloons for the present trade, even on Sunday.

The extraordinary growth of population in the State of Caldas in general and Manizales in particular is related to the rapid increase in the number of owner-operator plots, the development of transportation facilities, and the resultant commercial boom. The increase in population and commerce seems to be almost a direct function of increase in land ownership and in the means of transportation. A case in point is the growth of the Municipio of Manizales, which counted 25,000 inhabitants in 1905. Although this Municipio practically controlled the coffee industry in Caldas, it grew only very gradually, relatively speaking, till 1920, when it had

50,000. In 1930 the population was 80,000, and at present is probably well above 120,000.² The city itself, founded in 1848 by settlers from Antioquia, is the youngest of the large cities in Colombia; furthermore, it was burned down in the '20's and rebuilt along modern lines. The main part of the town has wide clean streets, modern buildings, and prosperous looking people. There are few terribly poor people or beggars, in contrast to Bogotá. And the growth of the suburban area has probably just begun. The completion of the road to the hot springs at Termales will certainly increase tourism by several hundred percent.

This reconnaissance trip from the extensively exploited Llanos, across two great mountain chains, to the densely populated State of Caldas, where agriculture, industry, and commerce are im-

²García, A., *op. cit.*, pp. 242-243.



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

MARIQUITA AND AN INSELBERG ON THE FLOOD PLAIN OF THE MAGDALENA



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

IN THE OUTSKIRTS OF MANIZALES

The slopes are almost completely deforested, but make excellent pastureland.

portant, is like a trip in time in the Middle West of the United States from, say, 1850 to the present. By diversification of crops and industries and by constructing means of transportation, the wealth of regions and nations can be multiplied and the standard of living of the people raised. And to achieve regional and national prosperity all the human beings therein must act as one interrelated productive unit.

It is not a mere coincidence that free-trade advocates reside in industrially advanced countries. Alexander Hamilton in the United States and Lister in Prussia, some century and a half ago, fought the free-trade idea as implied in Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations*, because it would have tended to make the whole world for all time an agricultural complement of industrialized England. By protecting and building up their own domestic industries the United States and Germany became

industrialized nations, increased their trade with Great Britain and the world, and raised the standard of living of their people. Unlimited free trade between two nations can redound to their greatest mutual benefit only if they have achieved more or less the same productive level, and if their exchanges augment the exploitation of all their wealth. If one nation always produces only raw materials and the other becomes highly industrialized, the former will always remain a colonial dependency of the latter. The two can play ball, of course, but the rules will always be laid down by the industrialized nation and, by the very nature of the case, while the game is in progress.

This reconnaissance trip was greatly facilitated by the network of good roads which has been constructed in Colombia, work on which is still being pushed forward. Colombian leaders have been

keenly aware that one of the first steps in modernization of a land is road building. The important regional centers, such as Pasto, Cali, Bucaramanga, Medellín, Manizales, to mention only a few, are linked to Bogotá by good gravel roads. This has made possible the easy movement of goods and passengers from one part of the coun-

try to the other, which has greatly increased the general prosperity. The modernization of agricultural techniques, the emphasis on national industrial development, and the road-building program are three highly significant factors in the present strong economic and political position of the Republic of Colombia.



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

BRIDGE ACROSS THE CAUCA AT ARAUCA

The road ascends the high terrace on the other side of the river; the village is on the lower terrace level. There are basalt outcrops in the bed of the river.

Ricardo Adolfo de la Guardia

President of Panama

THE change of government that occurred in Panama on October 9, 1941, brought to the Presidency of that republic Ricardo Adolfo de la Guardia. The new President took the oath of office before the Supreme Court of his country on the same day.

Señor de la Guardia was born in Panama City on March 14, 1899. He began his career as a public servant at the age of twenty, and held positions in various government departments. He was at one time treasurer of the Red Cross Society of Panama and a member of the Board of Directors of the National Lottery.

In 1930 he retired to private life, and engaged in business for six years.

When Dr. Juan Demóstenes Arosemena became President in October 1936, he appointed Señor de la Guardia Governor of the Province of Panama. The Governor resigned in March 1938 to become Superintendent of Santo Tomás Hospital, and he remained at the head of that institution, the most modern and best equipped of its kind in the republic, until October 1, 1940. On that date he entered the Cabinet of Dr. Arosemena's successor, Dr. Arnulfo Arias, with the portfolio of Government and Justice. During Dr. Arias' administration he twice was acting Minister of the Treasury, and once acting Minister of Foreign Affairs.

The Grand Cross of the Order of Vasco Núñez de Balboa has been conferred upon Señor de la Guardia.

Immediately after he became President of Panama, Señor de la Guardia issued the following statement:



The government of which I am now, with the unanimous approval of my fellow countrymen, the chief executive, will be motivated, I assure you, by the firm determination to cooperate in the defense of the continent. It will also steadfastly maintain the dignity of our nation, and meet with the utmost fidelity its contractual obligations with the Government of the United States, a nation to which we are linked by strong and sacred agreements, which my Government will most loyally keep.

I am absolutely confident that all the problems pending between these two countries will soon be solved without violating any of the democratic principles innate in all citizens of this nation, who can count on the protection of the incoming administration.



Courtesy of DIPP

THE LIBRARY OF ITAMARATY PALACE, RIO DE JANEIRO



Courtesy of DIPP

TIRADENTES PALACE, RIO DE JANEIRO

The Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics was in session in Rio de Janeiro from January 15 to 28, 1942, under the presidency of Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil. The plenary sessions were held in Tiradentes Palace, an imposing structure completed in 1926. The Political Committee met in the historic Itamaraty Palace, erected in 1854 by the son of the Baron of Itamaraty and purchased in 1889 for the seat of government by the Provisional authorities of the Republic, which had just been declared. Since 1899 it has been occupied by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. In the older part of the Palace many rooms are hung with damask and richly adorned with valuable paintings, handsome antique furniture, and oriental and Aubusson rugs. The Economic Committee convened in the library, a modern edifice that stands at the rear of the garden (shown on the opposite page). This building and another contiguous to it contain a collection of books and maps, some of them extremely rare, and the archives of the Ministry.

Next month the BULLETIN will give an account of the Meeting of the twenty-one Ministers of Foreign Affairs or their representatives, whose successful deliberations "were directed toward the common objective of hemispheric solidarity and mutual defense." The convocation of the Meeting was described in the January issue and the program was given in February.

More than 300 persons who attended the conference as delegates, technical advisers, members of their staffs or press representatives flew to Rio de Janeiro, traveling 2,000,000 passenger miles.

Women Workers in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay

MARY CANNON

Latin American Representative, Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

"BUT very few women of the South American countries work for wages!" I hear this exclamation constantly when I say I went to three countries of South America last year to get first-hand information for the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor about working conditions of women, and to establish contacts with public and private agencies concerned with the welfare of women workers.

Women have been wage earners in those countries for years, and their numbers are increasing as the number of industries increase and as social conventions change. The idea that girls should be prepared to contribute to their own and their families' support, if necessary, is more and more accepted. Since about 1920 the number of industries has been steadily increasing, but the greatest jump has come in the last few years; in Montevideo, Uruguay, for example, in 1931-32 582 new industrial establishments were founded and in 1935-36 there were 1,127. This is indicative of what has happened also in Argentina and Chile. It was these three countries that I visited during six months of 1941.

It is difficult enough to write about the women of one country alone, but to try to include three countries in one article is dangerous. There is nothing more obnoxious to the people of any one country than to be included in broad generalizations about "Latin America." Each of these

three nations is different from the other in many respects—it is true that all speak Spanish, all had their historical beginnings more or less at the same time, all shared the struggles for independence and even shared national heroes—but each one is a nation in its own right with its own traditions and history, its own national heroes, its own national pride. I would not offend friends in any one of these countries by including them in broad generalities.

There are, however, trends in the lives of women that are more or less the same in each country. Changing conditions and the women themselves cause the current of life to change for women in general. Individuals illustrate trends, and out of many possibilities a few are chosen. The first illustration is a young woman in Buenos Aires, now a feature writer for one of the most popular women's magazines. She is also the author of two books about wage-earning women, one a novel based on personal experience, the other a study based on research in legislation and conditions of work for women in the Americas. When she no longer had her parents and their home, she did not do the customary thing—go to live with her relatives; in spite of surprised protests, she made a home for herself in a small modern apartment. She has the confidence and respect of her neighbors as well as her friends. Another woman, a bit older, who had been teaching for 10 years or more and who had spent a

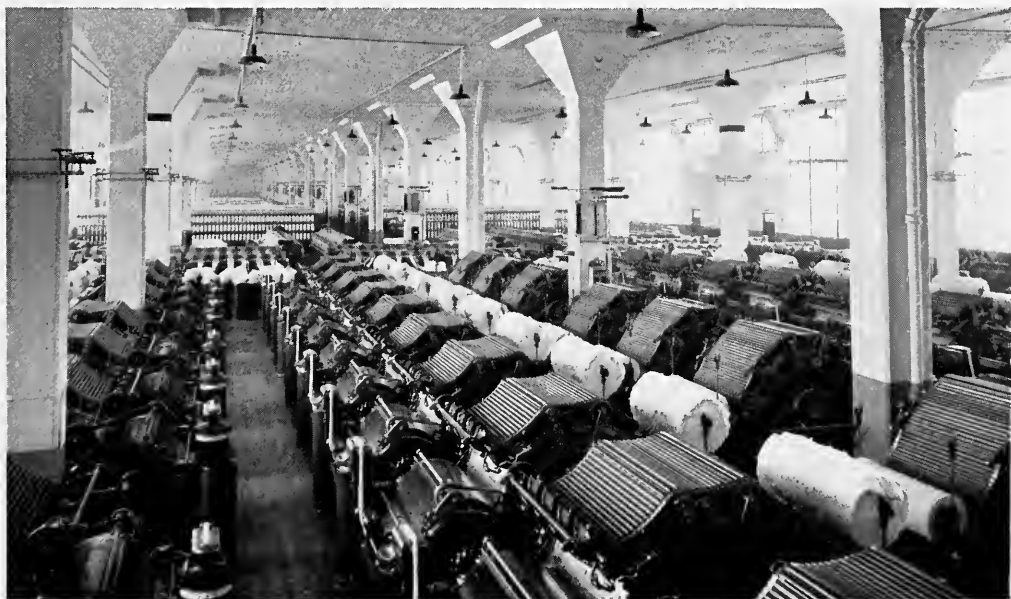
year in "the States," broke with the traditions of her family and friends several years ago when she found an apartment for herself. Friends who asked her how she dared have taken courage from her and now happily "live alone and like it." These women go out to dinner together, to lectures and the theatre after their late dinner, and their relatives are no longer shocked.

Another important trend is illustrated by a prominent leader who in the early years of her married life devoted her time to charitable institutions. She still gives a great deal of time to her "charity works," as she calls them, but she realized some years ago that women's concern should go deeper than alleviation of poor social conditions and so she was instrumental in interesting a group of intelligent friends in social problems, and then in working for political rights for women. This, she said, was "not because we thought we could

greatly improve conditions just by voting, but because without the vote we have absolutely no power."

Then there is the young Uruguayan metal-work artist, winner of exhibition prizes, both national and international, who had to be a wage earner as well as an artist; so she used her artistic gifts first in making adornments, such as costume jewelry, of the finest materials, and exquisite articles of interior decoration. Now she and another young woman design and build small inexpensive houses in lovely suburban spots, beautiful in arrangement and unusual with their hand-wrought rustic lights, fireplaces and other fixtures.

One more illustration is the young Chilean woman, a Doctor of Education from Columbia University, who established and is the director of a high school conducted on the principles of progressive



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

A TEXTILE FACTORY, SANTIAGO, CHILE

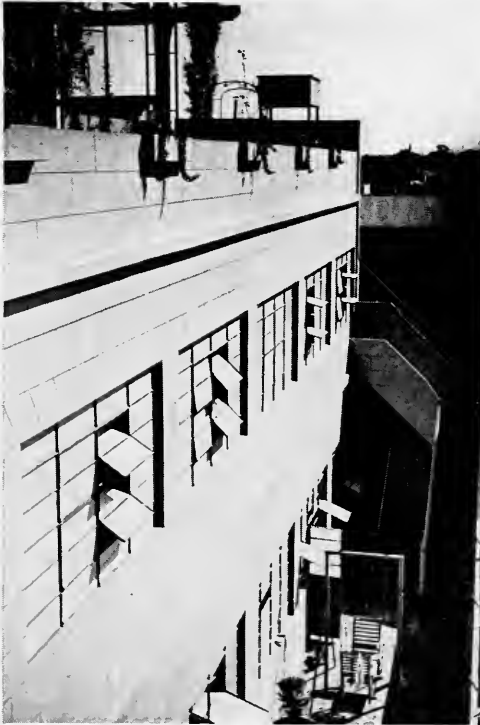
An American humidifying and ventilating system contributes to the efficiency of the work and the health of the workers.

education. It is unique because it includes both boys and girls, and is invaluable in a country with an already developed and rapidly growing social conscience, because the pupils of that school are studying the living needs of their people along with their books.

And so the illustrations could be multiplied, for women of those countries with their courage and ingenuity are achieving freedom of action not only in their personal lives but also in their professional work. It cannot be said of women in those countries or of women in the United States that freedom in general in economic activities has been achieved. In industry they are still paid lower wages than men. They themselves are not sufficiently vocal in their protests against this, nor are their

economic rights defended by others to any great extent.

Indications of trends in what is happening in Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile were revealed in conversations also: A young woman who has been an employee in the post office for a number of years said, "Employed girls have acquired a personality, an individuality in these last 10 years. They are still reserved, but no longer shy and afraid. They have won the respect of their employers and fellow workers; they have made a place for themselves." Factory managers said, "Girls come from the same economic background as before, but they are coming with more education, more 'personality'." A teacher said, "Women are accepted in the universities now without suffering the comments, the jibes they used to hear, and there are more women than men now in the Liberal Arts College of the University." A woman who is editor of a woman's magazine said, "Girls are trying to get factory instead of housework jobs now, even girls who come to the city from the provinces; those who do go into domestic service are asking to have shorter hours and live out, something which never would have been heard of several years ago." At a "Votes for Women" meeting in Santiago, Chile, a well-known leader of Chilean women said, "Twenty years ago I would not have said that Chilean women should have the vote, but we have made such progress in these two decades that now I am sure we are ready for it. Women are holding important public and private positions; women wage earners are alert and are already taking an active part in the political life of the nation; 25,000 girls are in our high schools each year. We have already proved our ability."¹



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

GOOD LIGHTING CHARACTERIZES THIS
SMALL FACTORY

¹ It is not intended to give the impression that the way is open and easy. Many barriers are put in the way of woman's progress—barriers that are hard to overcome.



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

A GLOVE FACTORY, BUENOS AIRES

Eighty women work here on leather, fabric, and lace gloves.

Women at work

The majority of employed women in the aforementioned countries, like the majority of employed women everywhere, work because of economic necessity—to support themselves and their dependents or to supplement the wages of the head of the family.

There are large numbers of women in the professions: Medicine, teaching (many in schools and a few in universities), dentistry, architecture, chemistry, pharmacy, engineering, law, and social work, and in public offices. They are in commerce, stores, offices, banks, and some have their own businesses. Very few are employed as waitresses.

Large numbers in all countries are earning money by means of home work, making not only trinkets and small utility boxes

but also men's, women's, and children's clothing and shoes—in fact, practically all clothing that is sold in the stores. There is scarcely any idea of trying to eliminate home work, but there is considerable effort to control it. Home work laws have been passed (Argentina's law was improved last year) and efforts are being made to enforce them.

Women are working in factories on semiskilled and unskilled jobs, and in some plants as supervisors. The industrial census of 1936 of all Uruguay shows 14,850 women employed in industrial plants. In 1941 in Buenos Aires alone there were 58,475 women in industry; in Chile in 1930 there were 290,961 employed women. Hundreds of women, of course, are employed in offices. A Catholic federation of employed girls (mostly

"white-collar") in Buenos Aires has over 19,000 members.

The factories vary in size from the small shop (one that was visited, a glove factory, had 80 women workers) where the owner is the supervisor, to the large factories (some of them foreign-owned) with from 5,000 to 6,000 women employed. Between there are textile mills with 500, packing plants with 1,200, cigarette factories with 300. The largest numbers are found in the textile, clothing, and food industries.

The factory buildings in the majority of cases have been recently built and are modern in their structure and installation. Instead of one large four- or five-story building some plants are housed in separate buildings with plots of grass and flowers between. It is the practice to equip factories with the latest machinery when they were established, and modern improved equipment, imported from the United States and, before the war, from various European countries, has been installed from time to time. Because of the structure of the buildings, natural light and ventilation are generally good,

and, when necessary, some of the most modern humidifying and ventilation systems are used. On the whole physical conditions, including sanitary and dressing room facilities, are good. Even though the majority of factory workers are employed on piece-rate jobs, there is not much speed-up, the most evident being where girls package small articles, and where a "standard" system is used.

A number of factories in each country have medical and dental clinics. Some have full-time physicians and nurses, and care is given not only to employees but to their families as well. Most of the medical service is free. Some companies also have trained social case workers in their employ.

Women's wages are lower than those of men, even on skilled jobs, as has been generally true in all countries. One meat-packing plant under North American ownership gave these figures for January and April of last year: in January women averaged 80 pesos a month and men 140.42; in April, women 72 and men 127.50. This gives an idea of the difference in earnings.



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

THE OWNER OF THE
GLOVE FACTORY
AND HIS FAMILY



Courtesy of Mary Cannon

LUNCH HOUR AT AN URUGUAYAN TEXTILE PLANT

Some of the factories have restaurants where meals are served very reasonably; occasionally women are charged less than men. Milk and sandwich carts are also used for mid-morning and afternoon snacks. Meals are not generally a problem, for a two-hour break at noon is required and the great majority of factory workers live close enough to go home for this meal. It may not be an unmixed blessing for the women workers who have to cook for their families.

Sports clubs and equipment have also been provided by the owners of some plants. In some cases the administration of these clubs is given over completely to the workers; in others they are administered jointly with the management.

A considerable number of firms organize classes for those who want to continue their grade school education or to study commercial and other courses. There are classes in dressmaking, cooking, handi-

crafts, and English. There are companies in each country that have a system whereby girls working at machines can study typing and allied office subjects, and then take jobs in the offices of the company.

All three countries have laws requiring that firms provide a nursery with cribs and an attendant for a fixed number of women employees; here women may bring their babies under a year old. Some of the nurseries are models, spotlessly clean, and have attractive furnishings and charming color schemes. The factory managers are always delighted when there are several little brown-eyed babies to display to visitors.

Women work, too, in factories in the cities and towns of the provinces or departments, long distances from the national capitals. For instance, in Chile there are large textile plants near Concepción, and recently a new plant was built much farther south. Packing plants, fruit-drying

and canning plants, confectioneries, and always the small garment-making shops and shoe factories are found in the interior. Women's work in the agricultural districts is as varied as the tasks to be done. They work in the sugarcane fields with their husbands and children; they work in the fruit-picking harvests; they make lovely rugs and bright-colored hand-woven articles which they sell to travelling merchants at extremely low prices.

Legislation for women workers

Labor legislation in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay presents an interesting picture. There are the laws, familiar to all countries, prohibiting women from working in occupations that are unhealthy or that contribute to immorality; the work week is limited to 48 hours, and two hours are required for lunch. There is a law requiring that all commercial houses, offices, and factories close by 1:00 p. m. on Saturday, giving employees what is called *sábado inglés* (English Saturday). Some North American companies instituted the so-called "North American Saturday," closing the entire day. Minimum wages are fixed in some instances; the laws controlling home work authorize the appointment of representative wage-fixing committees who decide on the wage for each type of garment, basing the decision on the time used in each bit of embroidery, faggoting, or whatever special skill the design involves. The maternity legislation and that requiring the day nurseries (mentioned before) is of special interest. With some variations the laws provide for rest periods before and after childbirth with all or part of the wages, medical assistance, and retention of the job for the worker. In Chile during the

weeks of rest the woman must receive half of her wages; these wages are paid from the Workers' Social Security Fund if the worker is eligible, the employer making up the deficit to equal the half, or the employer must pay the entire amount if the employee is not in the Social Security plan. In Argentina a maternity fund is created by a tax on the wage of each employed woman, whether married or single (male employees are not taxed), by a tax paid by the employer on the pay rolls of women employees, and further, by a contribution from the State. A woman is given 30 days before and 45 days after childbirth with a total allowance equal to $2\frac{1}{2}$ times her monthly wage at the rate of 25 working days a month, up to a fixed maximum benefit. Laws prohibiting married women from being discharged strengthen the maternity laws. The Women's Division of Inspection of the Chilean Labor Department very strictly enforces the observance of the maternity laws. The Labor Departments of Argentina and Uruguay have women inspectors but no women's division.

Health and safety programs are under way, with some offices doing splendid jobs among the workers, by means of very handsome posters and other visual means of popular education. Labor and health departments have issued and are enforcing comprehensive health orders. One country limits the daily hours of work to six in occupations which are hazardous to health.

The picture of women's part in the economic development of these countries is more and more interesting as women become increasingly prominent in commerce, the professions, and industry. This discussion will be continued in another article.

Ernesto Jaén Guardia,

New Ambassador of Panama to the United States

ON November 17, 1941, Señor Don Ernesto Jaén Guardia, newly appointed Ambassador of Panama to the United States, presented to President Roosevelt his letters of credence, as well as the letters of recall of his predecessor, Dr. Carlos N. Brin.

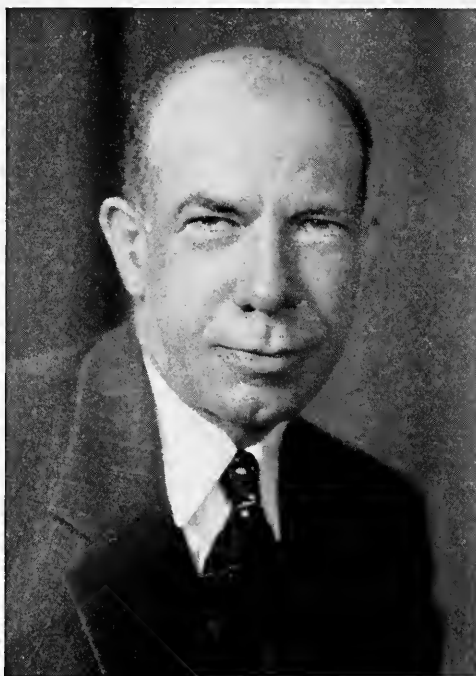
In the course of his remarks to President Roosevelt upon that occasion, Señor Jaén Guardia referred eloquently to the traditional bonds of friendship between the United States and his country and to the prodigious efforts of the two countries in building the Panama Canal, the defense of which is now so vital to the Western Hemisphere. He said in part:

In their international policies, the new leaders of the Government of the Republic of Panama will frankly and sincerely accept the declarations made at the Meeting of Foreign Ministers held at Panama and ratified at Habana directed toward maintaining continental solidarity, to the benefit of the democratic spirit that represents the bases of their institutions.

The Government of my country, conscious of its historic mission, understands that in order to defend the fundamental interests and ideals of the American continent it is indispensable that there be close cooperation among each and all of the American nations, and it will act in a manner compatible with its traditional democratic spirit within the principles laid down by its dignity as a sovereign country.

In welcoming the new Ambassador to his post, President Roosevelt addressed him in part as follows:

There is indeed, Mr. Ambassador, . . . a notable reason for the particularly close and cordial relationship between the United States of America and the Republic of Panama. I share with you the aspiration of your Government that the most effective cooperation and firm friendship shall continue, during these troubled times, and after-



wards, between our two Governments and peoples.

The fundamental principles of continental solidarity, reaffirmed by Your Excellency's Government together with those of the United States of America and our nineteen sister Republics at the conferences of Foreign Ministers held in Panama and Habana, form the unshakable foundation on which the security of our national liberties and sovereignty have been built.

Panama's new diplomatic representative was born in Antón, Province of Coclé, Panama, on December 22, 1895, his father being Juan Paulino Jaén M. and his mother Rita Guardia de Jaén. His early education was received in his native province, his secondary education at the School of Arts and Crafts in the Capital, and he then attended the University of

Michigan and the University of Illinois, from which he was graduated in 1921 with the degree of Bachelor of Science in Architectural Engineering. During the years from his graduation to 1935 he was engaged in the practice of his profession in the United States, in Panama, and in the Canal Zone. In 1935-36 he was Director of the Vocational School in Panama; in 1936-37 he served as Chief of the Internal Revenue Office; in 1937-38 he was Superintendent of Santo Tomás Hospital; and in 1938-40 he was Secretary of Health, Welfare, and Public Works.

Señor Jaén Guardia was appointed special ambassador of his country to attend the inauguration ceremonies of the Presi-

dent of Mexico on December 1, 1940, and following that occasion he was designated Minister of Panama in Mexico. On October 9, 1941, he served as President of Panama for three hours, and thereafter was named to his present post as Ambassador in the United States. He has also served as official delegate to several inter-American conferences, including the Third Pan American Highway Congress at Santiago, Chile, in 1939, and the Fourth Pan American Highway Congress and Second Inter-American Travel Congress at Mexico City in 1941.

Senor Jaén Guardia is also Panama's representative on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



Latin American Foreign Trade in 1940

JULIAN G. ZIER

Chief, Statistical Division, Pan American Union

THE purpose of this review¹ is to present a statistical account of the value of the foreign trade of the 20 Latin American Republics during the years 1939 and 1940, the latest years for which it is possible to obtain complete totals and to convert all of the monetary units of the Republics into a common denomination for comparison.

This conversion into United States currency was made by a somewhat arbitrary system necessitated by the fact that many of the monetary units have more than one fluctuating rate of exchange in foreign markets. In consideration of this fact the accompanying tables are published with such reservations as the process of compilation necessitates.

In some cases, as a result of the fluctuation of exchange rates, there is a marked difference in the status of trade expressed in the currency of a country as compared with that of the trade expressed in dollars.

The total foreign trade of the 20 Latin American Republics for 1940, compiled from Latin American official sources and converted into United States dollars, reached a value of \$3,096,959,000 as compared with \$3,204,999,000 in 1939, a decrease of \$108,040,000, or 3.4 percent. Latin American imports in 1940 totaled \$1,332,962,000, as compared with \$1,346,510,000 in 1939, a decline of \$13,548,000, or 1 percent. Latin American exports in 1940 amounted to \$1,763,997,000, as

compared with \$1,858,489,000 in 1939, a loss of \$94,492,000, or 5.1 percent.

The foreign trade of the 20 Latin American Republics for the latest nine-year period for which totals are available (1932 to 1940, inclusive), together with figures for the earliest four years for which a comparative compilation can be given (1910 to 1913, inclusive), was as follows:

TABLE I.—*Foreign trade, all Latin America—1910 to 1913 and 1932 to 1940*

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Year	Imports	Exports	Total trade
1910.....	1,058,660	1,286,201	2,344,861
1911.....	1,159,491	1,283,233	2,442,724
1912.....	1,242,513	1,573,533	2,816,046
1913.....	1,321,861	1,552,751	2,874,612
1932.....	610,448	1,030,393	1,640,841
1933.....	794,121	1,178,337	1,972,458
1934.....	1,043,673	1,632,368	2,676,041
1935.....	1,117,487	1,722,596	2,840,083
1936.....	1,248,230	1,908,076	3,156,306
1937.....	1,629,832	2,395,532	4,025,364
1938.....	1,414,083	1,757,555	3,171,638
1939.....	1,346,510	1,858,489	3,204,999
1940.....	1,332,962	1,763,997	3,096,959

Of the two main tables accompanying this survey, Table II gives the total visible imports and exports of each of the Latin American Republics for the years 1939 and 1940. Table III shows the percentage distribution of imports and exports of each of the Republics for the same two years among the six leading commercial countries.

Table IV shows the total import and export trade of the 20 Latin American Republics with the six leading commercial countries, by values as well as percentages, for the years 1939 and 1940. In Table V these percentages appear with those for the years 1910–13 and 1932–38.

¹ This review is taken from a more extensive pamphlet entitled "Latin American Foreign Trade: A General Survey—1940," published by the Pan American Union which contains statements in considerable detail on the trade of each country.—EDITOR.

TABLE II.—*Latin American Foreign Trade in 1940—A General Survey*

[Values in thousands of United States current dollars, i. e., 000 omitted.]

Country	Imports		Exports		Total foreign trade	
	1939	1940	Change in 1940	1939	1940	Change in 1940
Mexico	121,597	123,902	+2,305	176,509	298,106	+3,536
Guatemala	15,296	12,067	-2,029	16,985	32,281	-7,375
El Salvador	8,850	8,108	-742	12,740	20,536	-1,254
Honduras ¹	9,703	10,085	+382	9,867	19,570	+173
Nicaragua	6,365	7,052	+687	8,301	19,743	+1,880
Costa Rica	16,885	16,840	-45	9,086	16,606	+1,880
Panama ²	17,651	20,464	+2,813	37,669	24,324	+1,647
Cuba	105,862	103,860	-2,002	147,076	27,290	+1,970
Dominican Republic	11,592	10,511	-1,081	18,643	231,148	-22,380
Haiti ⁴	8,181	7,940	-241	7,268	30,235	-1,394
Northern group of Latin American Republics	321,982	321,429	-553	414,804	13,449	-2,110
Argentina	312,088	289,367	-22,721	393,293	736,786	-28,811
Bolivia ²	28,754	23,395	-5,359	34,613	705,381	-33,264
Brazil	296,127	300,877	+4,750	333,674	90,367	+6,598
Chile	84,665	104,315	+19,860	138,368	629,801	+1,803
Colombia	104,819	84,677	-20,142	101,169	223,023	-248,711
Ecuador	10,202	11,120	+918	95,674	205,988	+179,631
Paraguay	7,822	9,069	+1,247	11,353	21,735	+10,382
Peru	48,088	31,666	-16,422	9,825	17,647	-17,647
Uruguay	32,649	38,091	+5,442	71,707	119,735	+47,028
Venezuela	102,324	97,336	-4,988	30,632	83,281	-13,996
South American Republics	1,024,528	1,011,533	-12,995	1,443,685	401,195	-37,451
Total of the 20 Republics	1,346,510	1,332,962	-13,548	1,858,489	2,468,213	-2,388,984
					3,204,999	3,006,959

¹ Fiscal year ended June 30.² Figures are for 1938 and 1939; 1940 unavailable.³ Includes reexports.⁴ Fiscal year ended September 30.

TABLE III.—Percentage Shares of the United States, the United Kingdom, France, Germany, Italy, and Japan in the Foreign Trade of the Individual Countries of Latin America

Country	United States				United Kingdom				France				Germany				Italy				Japan			
	Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports		Imports		Exports	
	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940	1939	1940
Mexico	66.0	78.8	74.2	86.5	2.6	3.2	5.8	1.0	3.7	2.0	1.6	0.9	1.3	5.6	(1)	(1)	1.7	2.3	1.2	2.6	1.0	2.5	(1)	(1)
Guatemala	54.5	63.8	70.7	91.0	3.7	1.6	0.4	1.3	1.4	1.1	0.4	0.2	2.9	11.5	(1)	(1)	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.8	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
El Salvador	53.0	67.4	59.9	75.2	6.9	7.6	0.2	0.2	3.6	2.6	0.5	0.2	1.3	9.0	(1)	(1)	1.7	1.0	0.3	0.8	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Honduras	65.2	62.7	90.7	95.6	3.0	2.9	1.8	0.1	1.0	0.7	(1)	(1)	6.5	1.9	0.5	0.5	4.0	1.1	6.0	13.2	0.2	0.2	(1)	(1)
Nicaragua	68.4	84.0	94.2	81.3	0.4	2.6	1.4	2.0	0.4	1.4	2.0	0.4	12.2	10.9	0.5	0.4	0.4	0.1	0.9	2.3	0.5	2.0	(1)	(1)
Costa Rica	58.8	75.0	45.6	58.8	4.0	4.5	16.9	25.1	1.3	0.7	0.9	0.1	17.7	25.0	2.1	1.7	2.2	0.8	0.9	5.1	2.5	0.6	0.5	(1)
Panama ²	67.5	58.2	43.6	43.8	4.7	4.7	0.3	0.7	2.3	2.4	1.2	1.1	6.2	7.9	1.9	0.9	0.7	0.1	0.3	9.8	0.1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Cuba	74.0	78.0	75.3	82.4	2.9	3.4	12.2	7.8	2.1	1.4	1.2	1.1	3.2	0.8	2.0	0.9	0.9	0.3	0.2	0.4	0.6	(1)	(1)	(1)
Dominican Republic	59.2	66.4	27.1	24.7	3.1	3.9	36.2	41.2	3.0	1.4	4.2	4.0	5.7	0.7	3.1	0.9	0.9	0.4	0.1	2.4	8.3	0.4	0.4	(1)
Haiti	62.3	72.6	34.4	51.6	11.1	9.1	18.9	27.0	5.1	4.2	21.0	4.0	5.7	0.7	5.7	2.7	2.2	2.1	0.9	2.8	0.1	0.7	(1)	(1)
Argentina	17.2	29.1	12.0	17.7	19.9	19.7	35.8	37.7	5.6	3.0	4.8	5.8	9.2	0.7	3.1	2.7	2.2	2.4	0.8	2.1	0.7	1.6	(1)	(1)
Bolivia ²	25.5	22.7	4.6	9.2	7.0	5.8	62.5	64.8	0.1	1.9	(1)	(1)	17.9	12.4	(1)	0.5	2.4	(1)	0.9	4.6	0.3	0.3	(1)	(1)
Brazil	33.6	51.9	36.2	42.3	9.3	9.4	9.6	17.3	2.7	(1)	6.3	(1)	19.2	11.9	(1)	1.8	2.4	(1)	1.5	2.4	3.5	5.7	4.5	(1)
Chile	31.1	47.9	30.5	58.3	8.3	10.4	12.3	5.8	1.8	0.5	4.7	3.1	22.7	3.5	8.4	3.9	4.0	3.7	5.5	3.7	5.5	1.8	4.5	(1)
Colombia	54.0	71.4	66.9	69.8	9.5	7.6	1.4	1.9	3.0	1.9	3.1	3.1	12.8	0.8	7.3	0.1	3.3	3.8	0.2	10.5	3.9	3.2	(1)	(1)
Ecuador	48.7	59.4	49.1	59.9	5.5	7.5	3.7	5.8	5.0	3.6	6.6	1.3	18.1	2.0	6.8	(1)	3.1	4.1	2.2	12.9	6.1	(1)	(1)	(1)
Paraguay	9.7	21.3	14.7	20.9	8.2	8.6	7.8	12.7	1.8	0.9	1.7	1.1	11.7	1.4	5.0	(1)	1.9	0.4	0.4	3.1	5.8	2.4	7.8	(1)
Peru	41.1	53.1	30.4	42.9	8.4	9.2	19.6	12.1	3.5	2.0	5.6	2.3	14.7	1.4	6.0	(1)	2.0	4.6	0.8	3.1	3.8	1.8	3.3	(1)
Uruguay	5.2	16.3	13.8	25.9	18.3	18.5	18.5	20.8	2.4	2.0	1.8	3.9	16.4	1.4	12.1	2.0	6.4	6.0	4.6	2.7	3.2	1.8	0.2	(1)
Venezuela	61.1	73.7	20.4	22.5	6.2	7.6	4.4	2.2	3.0	2.0	1.8	1.1	9.5	0.4	1.9	2.5	2.1	0.5	1.9	3.2	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)

³ Unavailable.² Figures are for 1938 and 1939; 1940 unavailable.¹ Less than one-tenth of one percent

TABLE IV.—Distribution of Latin American Exports and Imports among the 6 Principal Commercial Countries

[Values in thousands of dollars, i. e., 000 omitted]

Country	Exports to —			Imports from —		
	1939	1940	Percent of total	1939	1940	Percent of total
Total	1,858,489	1,763,997	100.0	1,346,510	1,332,962	100.0
United States	654,860	778,091	35.2	546,869	703,372	40.6
United Kingdom	283,316	294,419	15.6	136,643	136,982	10.1
France	70,613	37,812	3.8	45,911	21,116	3.4
Germany	117,788	1,717	6.3	179,655	16,521	13.3
Italy	31,790	27,005	1.7	30,987	22,687	2.3
Japan	28,777	43,132	1.5	24,403	38,037	1.8
						2.9

TABLE V.—Percentage Distribution of Latin American Exports and Imports among the 6 Leading Commercial Countries

Year	United States		United Kingdom		France		Germany		Italy		Japan	
	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from	Exports to	Imports from
1910	34.5	23.5	20.9	26.0	8.4	8.4	11.1	15.6	1.2	4.9	0.1	0.1
1911	34.8	23.8	21.0	25.7	9.2	8.3	12.9	16.7	1.7	4.6	0.1	0.1
1912	34.4	24.5	19.8	24.4	7.9	8.3	11.9	16.7	1.8	5.1	0.1	0.1
1913	30.8	25.0	21.2	24.4	8.0	8.3	12.4	16.6	2.0	5.0	0.1	0.1
1932	32.1	32.3	19.4	16.3	6.7	4.9	7.2	9.4	3.1	5.4	0.1	1.1
1933	29.4	29.2	20.1	18.1	6.2	4.9	6.9	11.5			0.3	1.8
1934	29.4	30.1	20.2	17.3	5.0	4.6	7.9	9.9			0.4	2.8
1935	31.7	31.7	18.6	14.7	4.7	3.7	8.0	13.0	2.2	2.6	0.8	3.7
1936	32.8	31.5	19.2	14.3	5.0	3.0	8.0	15.4	1.8	2.1	1.9	3.0
1937	31.0	34.0	17.7	13.2	4.0	3.0	8.7	15.4	3.1	2.4	1.6	2.8
1938	31.3	34.6	16.1	11.8	3.4	3.4	10.3	16.5	1.5	3.0	1.3	2.7
1939	35.2	40.6	15.6	10.1	3.8	3.4	6.3	13.3	1.7	2.3	1.5	1.8
1940	44.1	52.7	16.1	10.3	2.1	1.6	0.1	1.2	1.5	1.7	2.4	2.9

APPENDIX

Leading Latin American Exports and Imports

COUNTRY	EXPORTS	IMPORTS
Argentina	Wheat, wool, beef, linseed, cattle hides, corn.	Fuel and lubricants; textiles and manufactures; metals and manufactures; motor vehicles and accessories; chemical and pharmaceutical products; machinery and accessories.
Bolivia	Tin, silver, wolfram, antimony, lead.	Livestock; machinery, tools, and implements; foodstuffs, especially sugar, wheat and wheat flour; motor vehicles, streetcars, wagons, and coaches; petroleum and products; industrial explosives; textiles.
Brazil	Coffee, cotton, frozen, chilled and preserved meat, hides and skins, cacao.	Machinery and apparatus; wheat; iron and steel manufactures; vehicles and accessories; petroleum and products; patent fuel, coal and coke; chemical and pharmaceutical products; paper and manufactures.
Chile	Copper, nitrate, gold and silver ores, wool, gold in bars, iron ore.	Textiles; chemical and pharmaceutical products; metals and manufactures; industrial machinery and transportation equipment; coal and other fuel; foodstuffs and beverages.
Colombia	Coffee, gold, petroleum, bananas, cattle hides.	Machinery, tools and implements; transportation equipment; chemical and pharmaceutical products; metals and manufactures; textiles and manufactures; paper and cardboard and manufactures; stone, cement, ceramic, and glass products; rubber and manufactures.
Costa Rica	Coffee, bananas, cacao	Metal products; railway material; machinery; wheat flour; chemical products; petroleum and products; motor vehicles.
Cuba	Sugar and products, tobacco and manufactures, manganese, copper, bananas.	Foodstuffs, especially cereals, meat, fruits, and vegetables; machinery, instruments, and vehicles; textiles and manufactures; iron and steel and manufactures; coal and other fuel; chemical and pharmaceutical products.
Dominican Republic.	Sugar, cacao, coffee	Textiles and manufactures; machinery and apparatus; jute bags; chemical and pharmaceutical products; paper and manufactures; structural iron; automobiles.
Ecuador	Cacao, gold (cyanide precipitates), petroleum, coffee, rice.	Textiles; vehicles and accessories; iron and steel and manufactures; chemical and pharmaceutical products; machinery and apparatus; wheat flour.
El Salvador	Coffee, gold, silver	Textiles and manufactures; chemical and pharmaceutical products; electrical apparatus and machinery; iron and steel and manufactures; motor vehicles.
Guatemala	Bananas, coffee, chicle	Textiles and manufactures; motor vehicles and accessories; petroleum and products; paper, cardboard and manufactures; railway material; machinery.

Haiti	Coffee, sugar, sisal, bananas, cotton.	Textiles and manufactures; foodstuffs, especially wheat; chemical and pharmaceutical products, especially soap; iron and steel and manufactures; mineral oils; motor vehicles; machinery, tools, and implements.
Honduras	Bananas, gold, silver	Metals and manufactures; machinery, tools, and implements; motor vehicles and accessories; textiles; chemical and pharmaceutical products; petroleum and products.
Mexico	Gold, silver, lead, copper, zinc, petroleum and products.	Motor vehicles and accessories; metals and manufactures; machinery and accessories; textiles and thread, especially rayon; paper, cardboard, newsprint, cellulose pulp; copra; chemical and pharmaceutical products.
Nicaragua	Gold, coffee, bananas	Machinery and apparatus; textiles and manufactures; metals and manufactures; petroleum and products; chemical and pharmaceutical products.
Panama	Bananas, cacao	Textiles and manufactures; foodstuffs, especially butter and wheat flour; cigarettes; automobiles.
Paraguay	Quebracho extract, canned meat, yerba maté, cattle hides, cotton.	Textiles and manufactures; foodstuffs, especially wheat and wheat flour; tin plate and containers; petroleum and products; live animals.
Peru	Copper, cotton, petroleum and products, sugar, gold in bars.	Machinery, tools, and apparatus; textiles and manufactures; chemical and pharmaceutical products; foodstuffs; metals and manufactures; automobiles and accessories.
Uruguay	Wool, chilled beef, preserved meat, linseed, cattle hides.	Combustibles and lubricants; foodstuffs, especially sugar and yerba maté; textiles and manufactures; machinery, tools, and implements; automobiles and accessories.
Venezuela	Petroleum and products, coffee, gold, cacao.	Machinery, instruments, and apparatus; foodstuffs and beverages; textiles and manufactures; metals and manufactures; chemical and pharmaceutical products; minerals, glass, and ceramics; automobiles and accessories.

Second Inter-American Travel Congress

"ENLIGHTENED patriotism at last realizes that in this Continent of ours, with its immense treasures and vast unexplored regions, power and wealth will depend not upon conquest and displacement, but upon that collaboration and joint effort

which will reclaim deserts and fertilize the soil . . ." That prophetic statement, uttered years ago by Luis Drago, the great Argentine statesman, faithfully expresses the spirit that characterized the deliberations of the Second Inter-American Travel Congress held at Mexico City from September 15 to 24, 1941.

Representatives of 22 governments and

From a report on the Second Inter-American Travel Congress, Travel Division, Pan American Union, Washington, D. C.

private industry—251 in all—met under the auspices of the Mexican Government to discuss ways and means of stimulating New World travel, with its obvious effect on commercial interchange, in the light of pressing needs for unity and close collaboration among our peoples. The importance of this international gathering was particularly enhanced by the presence of high government tourist officials and specialists from most of the countries represented.

All sessions of the Congress were marked by a spontaneous spirit of solidarity, by an abiding faith in the common destiny of our American nations and in the democratic institutions they so zealously uphold and defend. The need was stressed, however, for positive governmental action on a broad policy of interchange of individuals, if we are to achieve the unity and understanding so vital to the cultural, social and economic progress of the Western Hemisphere.

Further steps toward establishment of a continental organization for the promotion of tourist travel were recommended by the Congress. They included the formation of inter-American federations of hotels and automobile clubs, plus the drafting of a convention for the regulation of international automotive traffic, and a realistic analysis of the many problems confronting the travel industry in the Americas, with the adoption of practical solutions.

Immediate measures were recommended for the organization of North American, Central American and Antillean regional travel federations, similar to the South American group already in existence. Effective economic support was asked for the Permanent Secretariat of the Inter-American Travel Congresses at the Pan American Union.

The plan to establish continental associations of specialized groups urged by the

First Inter-American Travel Congress¹ was again endorsed, and action on such a proposal was not long delayed.

An Inter-American Hotel Federation was formed at Mexico City, as originally suggested at the First Travel Congress, by a special group of delegates representing hotels of 18 countries. Franklin Moore, ex-President of the American Hotel Association, was elected to head the new organization, with business offices in New York, although permanent headquarters are to be maintained in Mexico.

Another body officially launched in the Mexican capital was an Inter-American Federation of Automobile Clubs, with headquarters in Buenos Aires. Carlos P. Anesi, President of the Argentine Automobile Club and Chairman of the National Tourist Board recently established in that country, was the unanimous choice of the delegations present as first President of the Federation.

We may safely say that both of these organizations will be strong and active, and will exert a vitalizing influence on the movement for inter-American travel coordination.

Practical recommendations to the Governments of the 21 Republics and Canada, looking to the creation of a single, vast travel area in the Americas, were advanced in a series of resolutions adopted, which unfortunately can not be discussed in detail within the brief space at our disposal.

However, it should be said that the Congress ratified the position taken by the San Francisco meeting favoring the adoption of an inter-American tourist card. Pending a favorable change in the international situation, however, and the signing of a multilateral convention, the gov-

¹ *First Inter-American Travel Congress, San Francisco, California, April 14-21, 1939. See BULLETIN, August 1939, p. 473.*

ernments were urged to work out a solution of the problem through bilateral action. Furthermore, the simplification of health, police and customs requirements for travelers—in which great strides have been made by several Latin American countries—was deemed highly necessary.

The Pan American Highway, and its network of coordinated roads, came in for considerable attention. Jointly with the Fourth Pan American Highway Congress, which met simultaneously with the Travel Congress in Mexico City, an Inter-American Convention for the Regulation of Automotive Traffic was drafted, to be submitted to all Governments. Its purpose is to ease the flow of motor traffic across international borders through the adoption of uniform rules. Progress in the construction of the Highway makes this imperative.

Both Congresses endorsed the "Good Neighbor Circuit" of highways linking Argentina, Brazil, Paraguay and Uruguay, and the project that would connect the Antilles with the Continent through a coordinated system of highways and ferry-boats.

The next Congress of the Postal Union of the Americas and Spain is requested to survey the possibility of reducing, uniformly throughout the Americas, postal rates on travel publicity and information material intended for free distribution; while the governments are asked to exempt such material from the payment of customs duties, whether it be consigned to a Consulate of the country of origin, or by one transportation company to another or to its agents.

Protection is urged for the typical arts and crafts in the Americas, by "restricting, with a view to ultimately eliminating, the importation of imitations and counterfeits" from other areas of the world. A special committee, which is to meet under

the auspices of the Mexican Government, will work for uniform regulations and promote the adoption of such restrictive measures by all American nations. A generous leeway is requested for travelers who may wish to take articles of typical arts and crafts, as well as others intended for personal use, across international borders.

Other important resolutions call for special facilities for tourist yachts and airplanes; granting of all possible facilities for fishing, hunting, mountain climbing and similar sports; highway parking space, tourist shelters, restaurants and service stations conveniently located and properly supervised; easy availability of traveler's insurance; official supervision of currency exchange to insure that private commercial concerns grant current bank rates; preservation of national tourist resources (natural beauty spots, historic monuments, etc.); coordinated organization, promotion and stimulation of governmental tourist publicity; regulation of commissions to travel bureaus and tour promoters; interchange of groups of industrial and rural workers under the sponsorship of Government labor and agricultural departments, private associations and labor unions; collaboration of neighboring countries in the development of international parks; establishment of tourist libraries, and the adoption of a uniform system for the compilation of travel statistics.

The urgent need of improved inter-American communications was the subject of considerable discussion, in which particular stress was laid on the lack of steamship services to many countries, even prior to the present world crisis. Greater facilities were requested for international air services, while the governments were urged to negotiate with their neighbors at the earliest opportunity for the establishment or improvement of railway services across

their borders. The importance of international bus lines was emphasized in connection with the Pan American Highway.

Travel, with its effective contribution to mutual knowledge and understanding, has a definite place in the educational programs of the American nations, it was contended. Consequently, official endorsement and support of plans for a greater exchange of professors and students were unanimously urged.

In accordance with the practice followed with regard to the International Conferences of American States, the Pan American Union was designated as custodian of the original minutes and documents of the Inter-American Travel Congresses. The head of the Permanent Secretariat, of which the Travel Division of this institution has charge, is to be an *ex officio* member of the Congresses; and the Secretariat, in collaboration with the Organizing Committees and the respective governments, is given the task of drafting the agenda for each biennial meeting.

The joint formal opening of the Travel Congress and The Fourth Pan American Highway Congress in the Palace of Fine Arts was under the chairmanship of Lic. Miguel Alemán, Secretary of the Interior and chairman of the Organizing Committee; high government dignitaries and

members of the diplomatic corps were in attendance. A great measure of credit for the success of the Congress is due Lic. Fernando Casas Alemán, Under-Secretary of the Interior, who was elected permanent chairman; Professor Rafael Molina Betancourt, the secretary general; José Mayora, the chief clerk; and the staffs of the Mexican Government Tourist Department and the Mexican Tourist Association, whose aid and counsel were graciously offered and given at all times.

For the generous reception and entertainment by the Mexican Government, the delegates had the deepest appreciation. Such hospitality could hardly be excelled. The interesting program offered included a ceremony of homage to the flags, at the National Stadium, where a presidential message to the American nations was delivered and 10,000 voices sang a *Hymn to the Americas*; a spectacular pageant, *The Messenger of the Sun*, with 1,400 costumed actors portraying the ancient rite of human sacrifice in the Aztec city of Tenochtitlán; and, as a fitting climax to a series of sumptuous festivities, a formal reception tendered by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs.

The Government of the Argentine Republic will be host to the Third Inter-American Travel Congress, which is expected to meet at Buenos Aires in 1943.

O Velho Humanismo Latino e o Novo Humanismo Americano

JOSÉ AUGUSTO CESÁRIO ALVIM

ESTA REVISTA, nascida no seio de uma academia, traz forçosamente as virtudes que num cenáculo de cultura imperam: o espírito de compreensão, base de toda vida social e a aspiração de beleza, alma de toda atividade artística. Até aí está definida a herança latina de Casa de Machado de Assis, filha daquele viveiro da inteligência que Richelieu inaugurou à beira do Sena. Mas, para felicidade e desvanecimento nosso, esta revista—como a própria Academia de que provém—não se limita em ser latina e nem se contenta em compreender o mundo com a razão e embelezar a vida com a arte. Esta revista é alguma coisa mais do que latina—ela é americana. Ela vai além da razão e da arte. Ela agita um elemento novo e vigoroso no mundo das letras—a generosidade, o ímpeto liberal do idealismo americano—muito distinto da ingenuidade selvagem do mundo novo que influiu no exagêro romântico e liberal da civilização do século XVIII. Desta vez o que presenciamos não é mais um mundo virgem deixando os seus segredos serem roubados por estranhos incapazes de os penetrar e prontos a os desvirtuar. O que vemos é um mundo organizado, surpreendendo o mundo que se desorganiza, com a joviali-

dade e a sabedoria de um sentido claro dos destinos humanos.

Revela-se, pois, esta publicação—além de sentinela da cultura latina nos trópicos e de guardião do gênio mediterrâneo nas margens do Atlântico—uma franco-atiradora da cordialidade social que o sr. Ribeiro Couto identificou na mentalidade da nossa gente e que é na verdade patrimônio do espírito das Américas. Tribuna da cordialidade brasileira, abrindo-se aos escritores de todos os cantos do país, cega a quaisquer prevenções ou preferências regionais e sectárias, a *Revista Brasileira*, a Academia que a edita e o Presidente que a lança, batem os alicerces da unidade literária do país, tão necessária depois de nossa unidade política e de nossa unidade econômica. Manifesto da cordialidade interamericana, esta publicação poderia ostentar na capa a frase profética de Bolívar que anunciou o surgimento do verdadeiro panamericanismo: “Um mundo novo se organiza sob a forma de nações independentes, unidas por uma lei comum que dirigirá suas relações exteriores e lhes oferecerá a força estabilizadora de um congresso geral e permanente.” Mensagem da cordialidade e do optimismo americano ao mundo áspero e pessimista que se debate em crises ideológicas e bélicas, a *Revista Brasileira* adquire, nesta hora apocalíptica da velha civilização européia, um acento e um prestígio evangélicos.

Excerpt from an essay in “Revista Brasileira”, a publication of the Brazilian Academy of Letters, Rio de Janeiro, Vol. 1, No. 1, June 1941.

Pan American News

Convention on European Colonies and Possessions Effective

The Convention on European Colonies and Possessions in America, formulated at the Second Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs at Habana in July 1940, went into effect January 8, 1941, when the government of Honduras became the fourteenth signatory power to deposit its ratification at the Pan American Union.

The Convention sets up an Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration to take over and administer territory in the Western Hemisphere of a non-American State which another non-American State may attempt to acquire, and provides that it shall come into operation when ratifications have been deposited at the Pan American Union by two-thirds, or fourteen, of the American Republics. Prior to the deposit by Honduras, the following governments had deposited their ratifications: Argentina, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Panama, Peru, the United States, and Venezuela.

Now that the Convention has become effective, any ratifying country may convoke the first meeting of the Commission, proposing the city in which it is to be held.

The Commission is authorized to establish a provisional administration in the regions to which the convention refers, to allow such administration to be exercised by the number of States which it may determine in each case, and to supervise the exercise of such administration under the terms of the Convention.

Commission formed for utilization of immobilized ships

Designation of the members that will serve on the Commission of Experts on Maritime Affairs to formulate plans for the efficient use of foreign-flag vessels lying inactive in the ports of the American Continent was announced in December 1941 by the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, from its headquarters at the Pan American Union.

The appointments made by seven governments are as follows:

CHILE—Señor Carlos Cortés, Naval Attaché of Chile in the United States.

BRAZIL—Senhor Renato de Azevedo, General Agent of the Lloyd Brasileiro in New York.

CUBA—Dr. Ramiro Guerra, Delegate to the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee.

PERU—Señor Enrique Labarthe, Naval Attaché to the Peruvian Embassy in the United States.

ARGENTINA—Señor Alberto Brunet, Naval Attaché to the Argentine Embassy in the United States.

URUGUAY—Señor Mario Collazo Pittaluga, Naval Attaché of Uruguay in the United States.

UNITED STATES—Mr. Lloyd Swayne, of the Division of Emergency Shipping, U. S. Maritime Commission.

His Excellency Dr. Héctor David Castro, Minister of El Salvador, and delegate of El Salvador on the Economic Advisory Committee, has been chosen from among those members of the Committee whose countries will not be directly represented on the Commission to serve as chairman of the newly created body.

The creation of the Commission is in-

tended to give effect to proposals previously formulated by the Financial and Economic Advisory Committee for the use of immobilized ships. The basic plan in principle is that the vessels now lying in American ports shall be utilized in such a manner as to promote the defense of the economies of the American Republics as well as the peace and security of the continent.

The functions of the newly established Commission will be to make recommendations for the allocation of particular vessels to the several trade routes; efficient scheduling where more than one shipping line serves an individual port or nation; the diversion of at least minimum shipping facilities to those nations not reasonably adequately served and in which there lie no, or not sufficient, inactive vessels to alleviate the situation, at least partially; and the exchange or interchange among the ship-operating nations of vessels of various types in order that each may operate the type of vessels which it is in a position to handle and which are appropriate to the type of commerce to be borne.

Three pacts signed by Bolivia and Peru

On October 18, 1941, representatives of the governments of Bolivia and Peru signed two protocols, on safe conduct passes between the two countries and property titles and the nationality of inhabitants of the Copacabana Peninsula, respectively, and exchanged notes on the encouragement of tourist travel.

The first protocol provides for 3-day safe-conduct passes for nationals of either country traveling or engaged in border traffic between specified towns in one country to nearby towns in the other, from Fortín Bolpebra, Bolivia, and Iñapari, Peru, in

the north, to Berenguela, Bolivia, and Tarata, Peru, in the south. Those intending to travel farther into the neighboring country must have passports.

The other protocol will solve problems related to the ownership of private property and to citizenship that have arisen in putting into effect an earlier protocol, of January 15, 1932, which fixed the international boundary on the Copacabana Peninsula. Both governments will recognize the titles to private property legally acquired before December 2, 1939, and situated in territory whose sovereignty was changed by the 1932 pact, upon the presentation of certificates from the Registry of Real Property or other competent authority of the government under whose authority such title was acquired or established. Bolivians and Peruvians who are now, because of the new boundary line, under the jurisdiction of the other country, will keep their original nationality unless within three months after the protocol becomes effective they indicate their desire to change it.

By the exchange of notes, the two governments agree to inform each other of measures taken to increase tourist travel; to draft a plan whereby tourists to one country may also visit the other; to prepare a joint publicity program to be used abroad; to stimulate their mountain crafts that are of interest to tourists; and to preserve archaeological monuments and folk customs that serve as tourist attractions.

United States legations in Bolivia, Ecuador, and Paraguay raised to the rank of embassies

The Government of the United States announced on January 5, 1942, that arrangements had been made to raise its legations in Bolivia, Ecuador, and Para-

guary to the rank of embassies, and each of the three South American nations announced at the same time that it would take similar action with respect to its legation in the United States. The change in status will become effective in each country upon the presentation there of the letters of credence of the first Ambassador from the other country.

In the case of Ecuador, Captain Colón Eloy Alfaro has been accredited to the Government of the United States as Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of Ecuador since September 17, 1936, when he was given ambassadorial rank for the duration of boundary negotiations between the Governments of Ecuador and Peru. In accordance with the new arrangement, the Embassy of Ecuador in the United States will be maintained permanently as an embassy.

Supplementary trade agreement between the United States and Cuba

A second supplementary trade agreement between the United States and Cuba, negotiated under authority of the Trade Agreements Act, was signed at Habana on December 23, 1941, and, following its proclamation by the President of the United States on December 29, 1941, and publication in the *Gaceta Oficial* of Cuba on the same date, went into effect on January 5, 1942. It supplements and amends the United States—Cuba trade agreement of August 24, 1934, which was first amended by the supplementary agreement of December 18, 1939.

The original and first supplementary agreements covered nearly all dutiable products that enter into trade between the two countries. Therefore the new agreement includes comparatively few new products, but rather takes into

account new developments that have occurred since the signing of the original and first supplementary agreements and provides for additional tariff reductions by each country on specified imports from the other, as well as for other mutually advantageous changes. Like the original and first supplementary agreements, and in conformity with the policy first provided for in the Reciprocity Convention of 1902 between the two countries, the new agreement is an exclusive preferential arrangement and the tariff concessions contained therein are not to be extended by either country to a third country.

In Article I of the new agreement, Cuba grants concessions on products imported from the United States involving 38 Cuban tariff items, to 33 of which Cuba had already accorded improved customs treatment in the previous agreement and first supplement. The treatment of 30 of these products is further improved in the present agreement by reductions in the Cuban tariff rates, and on the remaining 8 items existing favorable tariff rates are bound against increases.

In the original and first supplementary agreements the United States obtained from Cuba duty concessions on about 80 percent, by value, of Cuba's imports from this country. In 1940 the United States supplied 78 percent of Cuba's total imports.

The new agreement establishes duty rates below those that formerly applied to the following United States products imported into Cuba: Steel safety razor blades; metal office furniture, filing cabinets, safes, and strong boxes; automobile and truck parts and accessories; tires and inner tubes; specified paperboard; insulating materials of rock or mineral wool or hair felt; specified napped cotton blankets; asphalt cements and putties for roofing and waterproofing; cellulose tubes, sausage casings,

and bottle capsules and bands; industrial starch and feculae; industrial glucose; alfalfa meal; chewing gum; cauliflower, celery, cucumbers, and other fresh garden truck (except tomatoes and cabbage) during the period June 1–October 31 in any year; fresh apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, grapes, and similar fruits; dried or evaporated fruits (except figs and raisins); canned peas, sweet corn, and asparagus, strained and unstrained; paprika and other canned or packed vegetables not specifically classified, strained or unstrained; preserved pears, peaches, plums, apricots, and others, and mixtures of the same; sauces, mustards, and seasonings (except tomato products); natural or artificial cider and unfermented grape juice, in specified containers; and edible starch and fecula of corn. Uniform customs classifications are provided for all kinds of canned beans and for all canned soups (except tomato).

Bound against increases are the present tariff rates on the following United States products: Pills, capsules, medicinal lozenges, and similar articles, when constituting pharmaceutical specialties; plywood; wooden crates for packing fruits and vegetables; canned tomato soup; ginger ale, root beer, and other nonalcoholic and soft drinks, not specially classified, in specified containers; tapioca and certain other edible starches, pastes, and feculae; manufactured articles of rubber not specially provided for; and felt-base oilcloth floor coverings.

Schedule I also provides for the free entry into Cuba of motion-picture films imported for preliminary showing to distributors or for censorship purposes, providing they are re-exported within thirty days without being publicly exhibited. Finally, provision is made in schedule I for the uniform classification of certain hydrogenated vegetable (soybean) oils in order to remedy an inadvertent ambiguity

contained in the text of the original agreement.

In Article II of the new agreement the United States grants duty concessions on imports of various products from Cuba. Chief among these products are sugar and molasses, tobacco and cigars, and fresh, chilled, or frozen beef and veal. Concessions are also granted on medicinal preparations and drugs of animal origin; marble chip or granito; frog legs; mangoes; and miscellaneous preserved fruits, fruit pastes, and pulps. Lima beans, green or unripe, are included in schedule II for the purpose of bringing the wording on this item, which appeared in the original agreement, into conformity with the language of the Tariff Act of 1930; no change is made in the tariff.

The new agreement establishes a United States tariff rate of 75 cents per 100 pounds of 96-degree sugar of Cuban origin. On the basis of 1940 imports, this rate is equivalent to about 43 percent ad valorem. Under the Tariff Act of 1930, as originally enacted, the rate to Cuba was \$2.00 per 100 pounds; this rate was reduced to \$1.50 by presidential proclamation May 9, 1934, under the so-called flexible provisions of the Tariff Act (Sec. 336), in connection with United States sugar-marketing restrictions imposed under the provisions of the Jones-Costigan Act. The rate was further reduced to 90 cents per 100 pounds under the original trade agreement with Cuba.

The first supplementary agreement of December 18, 1939, provided for the restoration of the tariff rate of \$1.50 per 100 pounds in the event sugar-quota legislation in effect at that time should expire without the enactment of equivalent legislation. With a view to providing the greatest possible stability in regard to the tariff treatment of Cuban sugar, and taking into account the extension of sugar-quota legis-

lation until January 1, 1945, the provision linking the duty reduction to the existence of sugar-quota legislation has been dropped.

Both countries recognize the desirability, particularly in view of the emergency situation created by the Axis powers, of maintaining Cuba's position as a supplier of sugar to the United States market. In an exchange of notes which constitute an integral part of the agreement, the United States Government gives assurances to the Cuban Government that it will exert every appropriate effort to safeguard the position of Cuba as a supplier of sugar for the United States market as compared with its position under the Sugar Act of 1937.

On molasses and sugar sirups imported from Cuba (edible molasses, liquid sugar, and industrial molasses), the new agreement provides duty rates 50 percent below those applicable to Cuba under the Tariff Act of 1930. Based on average 1940 imports of the various types, the new rates will be equivalent to approximately 40 percent ad valorem for edible molasses, 19 percent ad valorem for liquid sugar, and 2 percent ad valorem for industrial molasses.

Of these three classifications, industrial molasses is by far the most important. It is used chiefly in the manufacture of industrial alcohol and, to a smaller extent, in livestock feed. As a result of wartime demand, consumption of industrial alcohol in the United States has risen to extremely high levels, involving larger molasses imports. Imports of this type of molasses from Cuba in 1940 amounted to approximately 239,000,000 gallons valued at \$10,000,000.

With regard to edible molasses, 1940 United States imports from Cuba of this product amounted to approximately 2,800,000 gallons, valued at \$200,000. Of this quantity approximately 1,400,000 gallons were imported at rates 20 percent

below those applicable to full-duty countries under the annual customs quota of 1,500,000 gallons provided for in the trade agreement with the United Kingdom. The balance was dutiable at rates 20 percent below the general rates of the Tariff Act of 1930. Under the new agreement there is no limitation on the quantity of edible molasses of Cuban origin which may enter the United States at the new duty rates, but such molasses may no longer be admitted under the customs quota provided for in the trade agreement with the United Kingdom.

On "liquid sugar," the reduced rate of duty provided for by the agreement will apply to a maximum yearly amount of 7,970,558 gallons (of 72 percent total sugar content), which is the absolute annual import quota established for imports from Cuba by the Sugar Act of 1937. Actual imports from Cuba in 1940 were 7,562,000 gallons valued at \$1,212,000.

The supplementary agreement provides for United States tariff reductions, in addition to those made previously, in the rates of duty on Cuban unstemmed wrapper tobacco; stemmed and unstemmed filler tobacco not specially provided for (other than cigarette leaf tobacco); scrap tobacco; and cigars. The new reductions bring each of these duty rates to a level equal to 50 percent of the rates effective before the original agreement was signed.

The ad valorem equivalent of the new tariff rate on fresh, chilled, or frozen beef and veal imported to the United States from Cuba, figured on the basis of 1940 imports, is 41 percent. Imports of this type of beef and veal from Cuba have increased substantially in recent years in response to growing demand and high prices in the United States. In the first nine months of 1941 they amounted to 23,000,000 pounds valued at \$1,700,000. These figures may be compared with a

domestic production of beef and veal estimated at 8.1 billion pounds in 1940. The quantity of beef and veal imported from Cuba will be primarily determined by prices in the United States, by Cuba's limited potentialities as a surplus cattle-producing country, and by the extent to which exports from Cuba may be restricted by local authorities in that country in the interest of Cuban consumers.

The new agreement changes the general provisions of the original agreement in some respects. A number of the changes are purely technical. However, among other things, certain changes were made in the provisions relating to the imposition of taxes on imports to compensate for internal taxes on like domestic products; provisions regarding quantitative restrictions and exchange control have been amplified, assuring, in respect to the latter, to each country unconditional most-favored-nation treatment in all aspects of any control of the means of international payment that either country may establish or maintain; and general reservations relating to such matters as sanitary regulations, public security, etc., have been clarified and brought up to date to include a specific reservation regarding measures adopted for the protection of the country's essential interests in time of war or other national emergency.

Joint Mexican-United States Defense Commission

On January 12, 1942, the Governments of Mexico and the United States announced that it had been found expedient to establish a mixed defense commission to study the problems relating to defense of the two countries and to propose to the respective Governments the measures that should be adopted.

The commission, officially called the

"Joint Mexican-United States Defense Commission," is composed of Brigadier General Miguel S. González Cadena and Brigadier General Tomás Sánchez Hernández, of the General Staff, as representatives of Mexico, and Vice Admiral Alfred Wilkinson Johnson and Major General Stanley Dunbar Embick, as representatives of the United States. The first meeting was scheduled to be held in Washington as soon as General Sánchez Hernández completed his mission as a member of the Mexican delegation to the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro.

The naming of this commission, which will operate along the same general lines as the Joint Canadian-United States Defense Commission appointed some months ago, represents another step in the whole-hearted cooperation that exists between Mexico and the United States for wartime defense of the American continent by land, sea, and air.

Mexican-United States conversations on petroleum expropriations

Conversations directed toward determining the just compensation to be paid to nationals of the United States of America whose properties, rights, or interests in the petroleum industry in Mexico were affected to their detriment by acts of the Government of Mexico subsequent to March 17, 1938, began in Mexico City on Monday, January 5, 1942, as provided for in the exchange of notes between the two Governments on November 19, 1941. (See BULLETIN, January 1942, pp. 47-50.)

Morris Llewellyn Cooke represents the United States and Manuel J. Zevada represents Mexico. Mr. Cooke, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, is a consulting engineer in management and has had a

long career in public service. He was Director of Public Works in Philadelphia during the years 1911-16, and since that time he served for varying periods with the Council of National Defense, Emergency Fleet Corporation, United States Shipping Board, New York State Power Authority, Mississippi Valley Committee, Water Resources Committee, Great Plains Committee, and Building Stabilization Committee. During the past year he was Technical Consultant to Mr. Sidney Hillman, Labor Division, Office of Production Management. Señor Zevada, an engineer, is at present Under Secretary of the Department of National Economy of the Mexican Government.

Mexican industrial census of 1940

Preliminary figures on Mexico's third industrial census, taken in 1940, were recently published by the General Statistical Office of the Department of National Economy. For purposes of the census Mexican industries were divided into two main groups, extractive (which includes electric power plants) and manufacturing, and only those enterprises that produced goods valued at 10,000 pesos or more in 1939 were enumerated. The summarized data are reprinted in the table on page 174.

The General Statistical Office made a few explanatory notes in reference to some of the data, as follows:

The 17 enterprises listed under the heading of extractive industries as engaged in the exploitation of oil fields were working a total of 31 fields, of which 15 were the property of independent producers and 16 were semiofficial undertakings. The value of their capital investments as given in the table did not include the value of their rolling stock and shipping tonnage. Figures on the value of oil-field production were obtained from the General Office of Petro-

leum and Mines, Department of National Economy. The 5 oil refinery enterprises operated a total of 9 plants, of which 3 were independently owned and 6 were semi-official. The value of oil-refinery production was an approximate figure, calculated on the basis of the value assigned by some of the refineries to their respective production. The value of the crude petroleum refined in Mexico was not included in the value of national raw materials. In the data on mines of metallic minerals, the figures on value of production represent the approximate value of the metallic content of the extracted ore before it was smelted.

In the manufacturing industries, the category of "Other industries" included such items as school and office supplies, toys, sandpaper, water filters, enameled, bakelite, and metal articles and accessories, and similar miscellaneous manufactures.

Mexico's first industrial census was taken in 1930 and the second in 1935. The results of these two, together with the data now being published for the third census, form a valuable and informative record of the country's industrial development in the past decade. Since the first industrial census of 1930 methods and bases for collecting and compiling the data have undergone some changes, but in spite of those modifications some interesting comparisons, indicative of marked industrial progress, may be made.

During the period from 1935 to 1940 there was, for example, an increase of 73.1 percent in the total number of manufacturing establishments and an increase of 29.4 percent in the total number of extractive enterprises (including light and power plants). In the same period the number of workers employed in manufacturing industries increased 20.3 percent and in the extractive industries 15.8 percent, while total wages paid by the two industrial

Mexican Industrial Census, 1940 (Preliminary figures)

Industry	Number of establishments	Number of workers employed	In thousands of pesos					Value of production
			Wages paid	Social benefits paid to workers	Value of capital investments	Value of raw materials		
						National	Imported	
EXTRACTIVE:								
Oil fields.....	17	7,368	21,616	1,666	126,412	641	11,263	182,419
Oil refineries.....	5	7,504	22,861	1,022	117,932	1,762	2,034	243,071
Mines (metallic minerals).....	106	41,310	63,608	5,837	228,188	15,815	6,324	281,868
Metalurgical plants.....	115	18,298	29,543	3,999	302,191	7,324	13,340	738,963
Shops (for auxiliary service to mining and metallurgy).....	110	4,297	6,652	309	7,863	3,114	2,466	16,962
Mines (coal).....	2	803	5,131	505	9,778	407	592	11,293
Coke plants.....	3	803	1,849	418	25,440	7,276	57	11,871
Quarries.....	10	622	625	2	609	43	(1)	1,121
Sand pits.....	9	187	141	4	200	2	(1)	248
Mines (salt).....	35	1,577	939	81	7,132	480	---	3,898
ELECTRIC POWER PLANTS:								
For service of mining and metallurgy.....	24	632	752	25	18,553	---	---	10,145
For public service.....	149	6,476	16,408	2,541	891,321	---	---	99,174
Total.....	650	91,561	170,125	16,309	1,735,619	36,864	35,573	1,601,033
MANUFACTURING:								
Textiles.....	941	97,537	96,621	2,822	245,849	184,068	42,063	425,171
Metal articles.....	420	13,397	20,130	2,709	83,572	24,573	34,291	104,424
Construction materials.....	205	12,786	11,606	259	28,157	6,960	286	39,889
Clothing and accessories.....	801	14,419	12,640	256	23,928	33,887	6,970	70,761
Food products.....	8,044	60,804	47,707	2,602	253,459	278,188	31,852	526,193
Woodworking.....	392	10,461	8,617	341	42,257	11,415	3,471	30,563
China, glass, and pottery.....	57	4,236	5,562	296	14,525	1,136	3,298	20,082
Leather and hides.....	156	2,495	3,112	76	8,145	13,247	2,563	23,867
Electric appliances.....	28	566	631	17	5,308	13,476	2,247	5,162
Chemicals.....	410	9,707	10,312	503	25,759	37,837	33,406	129,113
Paper.....	74	4,399	5,900	618	25,582	6,434	13,400	39,118
Graphic arts, photography, motion pictures.....	328	5,553	10,511	145	18,880	10,718	13,400	28,476
Tobacco.....	13	3,382	3,786	255	54,843	16,604	4,275	69,305
Jewelry and art objects.....	63	274	3,333	3	54,843	16,604	4,275	69,305
Musical and precision instruments.....	5	28	36	(1)	227	237	340	1,125
Other.....	57	1,288	1,850	15	8,593	1,613	869	7,992
Total.....	11,974	240,762	239,254	10,917	872,120	627,410	183,903	1,621,674
Grand total.....	12,624	332,323	409,379	27,226	2,607,739	664,274	219,476	3,122,707

1 Less than 1,000 pesos.

groups showed increases of 73.8 percent and 150.2 percent, respectively. Capital investments in manufacturing industries in 1940 were 32.8 percent greater than in 1935 and in the extractive industries the increase was 167.3 percent; and the value of production of the two groups increased 53.8 percent and 97.8 percent, respectively, during the same period. These percentages are based on official figures for the industrial census of 1935 published in *Resumen General del Censo Industrial de 1935* issued by the Dirección General de Estadística, Secretaría de la Economía Nacional, Mexico, 1941, and preliminary data for the 1940 census published in the *Revista de Estadística* for September and October, 1941, issued by the same office.—D. M. T.

Argentine tungsten purchases

Announcement was made in Washington on November 29, 1941, that the Metals Reserve Company had completed arrangements with the Argentine Government and the producers of tungsten in Argentina for the purchase of tungsten concentrates in an amount up to 3,000 tons per year for a period of three years, at a price of \$21.00 per short ton unit of contained tungstic oxide.

Argentina's present annual output of this important strategic material is approximately 2,000 tons, but it is expected that production can be increased to 3,000 tons. The Argentine Government agreed, under the terms of this purchasing arrangement, that no tungsten will be exported from Argentina except to the United States.

Nicaraguan Petroleum Commission

By a Presidential decree of October 14, 1941, the National Petroleum Commission of Nicaragua was created to see that

there is a permanent supply of petroleum products sufficient for national needs and to control consumption in the country. The Commission will periodically decide upon the amount needed by Nicaragua and inform the United States Petroleum Supply Committee for Latin America through the proper channels. The Commission is composed of three members, appointed by the President, representing respectively the government, the oil interests, and the consumers.

Aviation clubs in Brazil

Throughout Brazil there are 94 aviation clubs affiliated with the National Air Club, whose headquarters are in Rio de Janeiro. The State of São Paulo leads with 33, followed by Rio Grande do Sul with 19, Minas Gerais with 15, Paraná and Santa Catarina with 4 apiece, Mato Grosso, Paraíba, and Rio de Janeiro with 2 apiece, and the other 12 States and the Territory of Acre with 1 apiece.

In Porto Alegre there is also the Varig Air Sports Club, an organization similar to the air clubs, in that its members fly for pleasure and that it trains civilian pilots. The town of Novo Hamburgo (Rio Grande do Sul) has a glider group, which offers local youth instruction in civilian flying.

National monuments law in Nicaragua

A law signed by President Somoza on July 25, 1941, provides that all archaeological, historic, or artistic monuments in Nicaragua that were not in private hands when the law was promulgated shall belong to the State.

Archaeological monuments include buildings, steles, statues, inscriptions, ruins, and other relics of pre-Columbian peoples. Among the historic monuments are

buildings, statues, inscriptions, books and manuscripts, and anything else of recognized antiquity and historic importance. Artistic monuments are considered to be such above-mentioned objects as deserve to be preserved as outstanding expressions of the art and civilization of the country, as well as rare or beautiful works of nature.

For a given object to become a historical or an artistic national monument, it must be so declared by a Presidential decree, which will be issued after approval of the case by experts.

The exportation of any object coming within one of these three classifications is forbidden by the law.

Inter-American Federation of Societies of Authors and Composers

On November 22, 1941, representatives of authors' societies of Argentina, Brazil, Cuba, Chile, Uruguay, and Venezuela who were present at the Second American Conference of National Committees of Intellectual Cooperation at Habana formed the Inter-American Federation of Societies of Authors and Composers, which will have its headquarters in the capital of Cuba.

The aims of the Federation, as outlined in the constitution signed at that time, are: to try to obtain from the American nations the broadest possible copyright protection for writers; to work for improved national legislation and inter-American treaties on this subject; to create and maintain a center for documentation, information, and control, which will assist affiliated societies in obtaining guarantees for collecting royalties within the respective countries and abroad; and to study and settle problems relating to the collection, administration, and distribution of royalties.

Señor Alejandro E. Barruti, president

of the Argentine Society of Authors, was elected president of the Federation, and the presidents of the other societies that are charter members were made vice presidents.

Any American society of authors, writers in general, composers, and artists of all kinds, the activities of which are mainly concerned with the collection of copyright fees, should apply to Secretary General, Dr. Natalio Chediak, whose office is at Calle Cuba 335, Habana, if it wishes to join the Federation.

Anti-illiteracy campaign in the Dominican Republic

In September 1941 the first step was taken in a new and vigorous campaign against illiteracy in the Dominican Republic through passage of a law providing for the establishment of up to 5,000 special "emergency schools" in rural areas of the country. The problem of providing adequate and accessible educational facilities outside the principal cities and towns had long been a grave and difficult one for the Government to cope with, inasmuch as the population is so widely dispersed that it was hard and often practically impossible for children of school age to travel the long distances from their scattered country homes to the schools. The installation of the new emergency schools to the extent provided for in the law represents an attempt to put education within easy reach of all the rural children of the country.

The emergency schools are to be financed in part by national funds (\$32,500 was allotted from general revenues as an initial contribution to their establishment immediately following passage of the law), and municipalities and even individuals may also participate in financing or otherwise contributing to their establishment and maintenance.

An integral part of each school will be a garden and orchard in which the pupils will have an opportunity to acquire a working knowledge of improved agricultural practices.

It was confidently expected by government officials that by the end of January 1942 about a thousand emergency schools would be in operation in the Dominican Republic.

Another step in the illiteracy campaign was recently taken by the Department of Education and Fine Arts through the issuance of an order directing the superintending, administrative, and teaching personnel of the country's public schools, both official and semiofficial, to devote themselves during the next two annual summer vacation periods (July 16 to September 14, 1942, and 1943) to the task of teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic to persons of school age or to adults who may wish to receive such instruction. Each teacher will be required to teach a group of from 15 to 25 pupils and to spend a minimum of two hours each day, excluding Sundays and legal holidays, in such work. Teachers may give their classes in the schools to which they are regularly attached, or they may make arrangements to take charge of classes in schools in other parts of the country.

Ernesto Laroche Museum

Ceremonies were recently held in Montevideo marking the inauguration of the Ernesto Laroche Museum, located in the house in which the late internationally known Uruguayan painter and printmaker lived during the last twenty years of his life.

Through the cooperation of the artist's family and the National Commission of Fine Arts, a great number of Ernesto Laroche's works were assembled for display

in the museum, together with many personal mementos of the artist himself. The principal address at the dedicatory ceremonies was given by the Chairman of the National Commission of Fine Arts, Señor Raúl Montero Bustamante, in the presence of some two hundred invited guests, and on the first day the doors of the Museum were opened to the general public approximately five hundred persons visited it to pay tribute to the works and memory of one of Uruguay's greatest landscape artists.

Meeting of Inter-American Commission of Women

The second annual meeting of the Inter-American Commission of Women was held at the Pan American Union, Washington, D. C., November 6-9, 1941. Señora Ana Rosa S. de Martínez Guerrero, delegate of Argentina and Chairman of the Commission, presided over the meeting. The other delegates in attendance were:

Señorita Minerva Bernardino, *Vice Chairman*,
Dominican Republic
Señora Carmen B. de Lozada, Bolivia
Señora Ángela Acuña de Chacón, Costa Rica
Señora María Currea de Aya, Colombia
Señorita Graciela Mandujano, Chile
Señora Piedad Castillo de Levi, Ecuador
Señora Elena de Castro, El Salvador
Señora Mariana de Cáceres, Honduras
Señora Amalia Caballero de Castillo Ledón,
Mexico
Señora Esther Neira de Calvo, Panama
Miss Mary N. Winslow, United States

The delegates were welcomed to the Pan American Union by Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General, and Dr. Pedro de Alba, Assistant Director, and the meeting was officially opened by Señora de Martínez Guerrero, Chairman, who spoke spiritedly of the need for the women of the continent to help preserve American democracy.

Señorita Bernardino, Vice Chairman, described the recent reform of the Dominican Republic's legal code giving civil rights to women, the reform of the constitution giving them political rights, and the institution of juvenile courts.

The other members of the Commission then presented reports of their work during the year, after which they proceeded to the discussion of resolutions and plans for activity during 1942. A declaration was unanimously approved asserting that the Commission will "sustain and support all initiatives tending toward instilling in the nations of America a consciousness of their responsibility, with the objective of preserving democratic ideals and bringing the continent into a united front capable of aiding the world in its present distress." Among the several resolutions adopted, covering various phases of women's activity in national life and defense work, were those recommending that all governments that do not already have them establish nursery schools and obligatory courses in child care for girls in secondary schools and higher educational institutions; that educational standards be coordinated among the American nations to facilitate the interchange of students; and that, pending the enfranchisement of women in all countries, they be permitted to hold public office, to participate in juvenile courts, to act as advisors to legislative bodies on problems pertaining to women and children and to educational councils on matters pertaining to education, and to enter the diplomatic and consular service. Another resolution recommended that governments establish schools for training volunteer social workers to render assistance in the homes of laborers as an aid to civilian defense, and still another called for the training of women throughout the Americas to replace men in industry and agriculture.

In another resolution the aid of the United States delegate was asked in obtaining the cooperation of the Office of Civilian Defense in order to carry out similar programs in the other republics. In the same resolution the Commission expressed the unanimous feeling for the need of strengthening volunteer community services throughout the Americas as a part of the hemispheric defense program.

The work plan approved by the Commission for the ensuing year includes the publication of a Bulletin and the establishment of a library in the office of the Commission at the Pan American Union.

Publications of the Pan American Union, July-December 1941.

Specialists in various phases of Latin American life and activities, as well as the general public, will find much of interest in the material issued by the several divisions of the Pan American Union during the six months ended December 31, 1941.

The BULLETIN completed its 48th year of continuous publication as the official organ of the Union; it appears in three editions, English, Spanish, and Portuguese, not entirely parallel.

Other publications continued by the offices of the Union are as follows:

JURIDICAL DIVISION.—Volumes III and IV of the compilation *Improvement and Coordination of Inter-American Peace Instruments* were brought out in English. The former is entitled *Existing Inter-American Peace Instruments and Other General Peace Treaties Signed by the American States*, the latter, *Text of the Draft Treaty on the Establishment of an Association of American Nations submitted to the Eighth International Conference of American States*.

In the same series, in Portuguese, volumes II, III, and IV appeared: *Textos dos Projetos sobre Aperfeiçoamento e Coordenação dos*

Instrumentos Interamericanos de Paz Submetidos à Oitava Conferência Internacional Americana; Convênios e Acordos Interamericanos de Paz Existentes e Outros Convênios de Paz Assinados pelos Estados Americanos; and Texto dos Documentos Relativos ao Estabelecimento de uma Associação de Nações Americanas Apresentados à Oitava Conferência Internacional Americana.

Supplement no. 3 to *Decrees and Regulations on Neutrality* appeared in English, Spanish, and Portuguese volumes.

The semiannual revision of the chart, *Status of the Pan American Treaties and Conventions*, as of July 1, 1941, was duly published.

DIVISION OF INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION.—Two numbers of *Points of View* have been issued: *Is America a Continent?* a round-table discussion held in Buenos Aires, in which Amado Alonso, Germán Arciniegas, Raúl Arrarás Vergara, Carlos Alberto Erro, Edith Helman, Pedro Henríquez Ureña, Eduardo E. Krapf, María Rosa Oliver, and Arnaldo Orfila Reynal took part (No. 2); and *Do the Americas have a Common History?* by Edmundo O'Gorman (No. 3).

In Spanish, *Educación para una Sociedad sin Clases*, by James Bryant Conant (Puntos de Vista, No. 3), *Lectura para Maestros* (No. 12), and *Tres "Ilustres Muchachos" en Trance de Ficción y Realidad* (supplement to *Correo*, Nos. 21–22) were published, and No. 113–114 of the Education Series appeared: *Educación y Cuidado de los Excepcionales*, by Merle E. Frampton and Camilla Morgan.

The Portuguese publications were *Correio*, No. 9, and *Pontos de Vista*, No. 3, containing President Conant's article.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY.—*The Pan American Bookshelf*, a monthly list of books received in the Library, with some annotations, continued to make its regular appearance. Three volumes in the Bibliographic Series were revised: *Latin American Booktrade and Library Journals in the*

Columbus Memorial Library of the Pan American Union (No. 2, part 2); *Book Stores and Publishers in Latin America* (No. 2, part 3); and *Theses on Pan American Topics*, prepared by candidates for degrees in universities and colleges in the United States (No. 5, third edition, revised and enlarged).

DIVISION OF AGRICULTURAL COOPERATION.—Two new publications in the Series on Agriculture have appeared, one in Spanish, the other in Portuguese: *Fibras Vegetales* (Nos. 137–40, Spanish), by Lyster H. Dewey, and *Cooperativas Rurais de Eletricidade* (No. 14, Portuguese) by Udo Rall.

In the Spanish Series on Cooperatives, Nos. 15, 16, and 17 were published: *Reseña de la Cooperación Agrícola en Venezuela* by Manuel Cardozo; *Crédito Rural en El Salvador*, by José Valle; and *El Cooperativismo Agrario en el Perú*, by Alejandro MacLean y Estenós.

DIVISION OF ECONOMIC INFORMATION.—Four numbers of *Commercial Pan America*, a monthly review of commerce and finance, were published, as follows: *Views of Central Banks after Fourteen Months of War* (July); *Commercial Interdependence of the Americas*, by Julian G. Zier (August); *Economic Relations between the Americas*, by Mordecai Ezekiel (September–October); and *Gold and Silver in Nicaragua* (November–December). The same articles appeared in *Panamérica Comercial*, the Spanish edition of this publication.

The pamphlets on Argentina, Bolivia, Costa Rica, and Honduras, in the American Nation Series, and on Quito, in the American City Series, have been revised and brought up to date.

MUSIC DIVISION.—No. 1 of the Music Series, *Partial List of American Music Obtainable in the United States*, with a supplementary list of books and a selective list of phonograph records, was issued in March 1941. It was compiled by Gilbert Chase,

of the Music Division of the Library of Congress. Mention of this publication was inadvertently omitted from the report in the September 1941 BULLETIN.

STATISTICAL DIVISION.—Five pamphlets in the Foreign Trade Series were published. These are as follows: No. 188, Brazil (1939 and 1940); No. 189, Nicaragua (1938 and 1939); No. 190, Guatemala (1938 and 1939); No. 191, Mexico (1939 and 1940); and No. 192, Bolivia (1938 and 1939).

DIVISION OF LABOR AND SOCIAL INFORMATION.—Numbers 5 and 6 of *Noticias* appeared. This mimeographed publication, which is issued in Spanish only, gives information on recent legislation and current events in the fields covered by this office.

LATIN AMERICAN STAMP SECTION.—A new price list enumerating the 57 postage stamps from 12 Latin American nations on sale at the Union has been issued, and will be sent to all those requesting it and enclosing a 3-cent stamp.

COUNSELOR'S OFFICE.—The annual list of material prepared at the Union for distribution early in the year to groups planning to observe Pan American Day was issued in November.

In addition to these regular publications, many special ones were prepared for specific purposes or to give information on subjects of current interest.

Those of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation were *Latin American Literature* (annotated references to material in English); *Conventions and Treaties Bearing on*

Intellectual Cooperation (signed at the Montevideo and Buenos Aires Conferences of 1933 and 1936); *Latin American Costumes* (a bibliography); *Report of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation*; and *The Exchange of Students and Teachers between the United States and Latin America*. Three comprehensive bibliographies have been revised and enlarged: *Latin America in 351 Articles published in the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*; *Films and Slides on Latin America*; and *Life and Customs in Latin America*.

Short lists, either new or greatly revised, include *Pan American Union Publications of Interest to Teachers*; *Inter-American School Correspondence*; *Additional Sources of Material on Latin America for Use in Schools*; *General References on Education in Latin America*; and *Periodicals Published in the United States Carrying Information on Latin America*.

The programs and regulations for two inter-American conferences, which had been approved by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, were published by the Union in English, Spanish, and Portuguese. The two conferences were the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held in Rio de Janeiro, January 15–28, 1942, and the Inter-American Conference of Police and Judicial Authorities, to be held in Buenos Aires in May 1942. A *Special Handbook* was prepared by the Counselor for the use of the delegates to the Third Meeting.

A revised edition of the bibliography, *Current Periodicals Printed in English relating Exclusively to Latin America*, was issued by the Columbus Memorial Library.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

The monthly illustrated BULLETIN is published in three editions. Subscription rates are:

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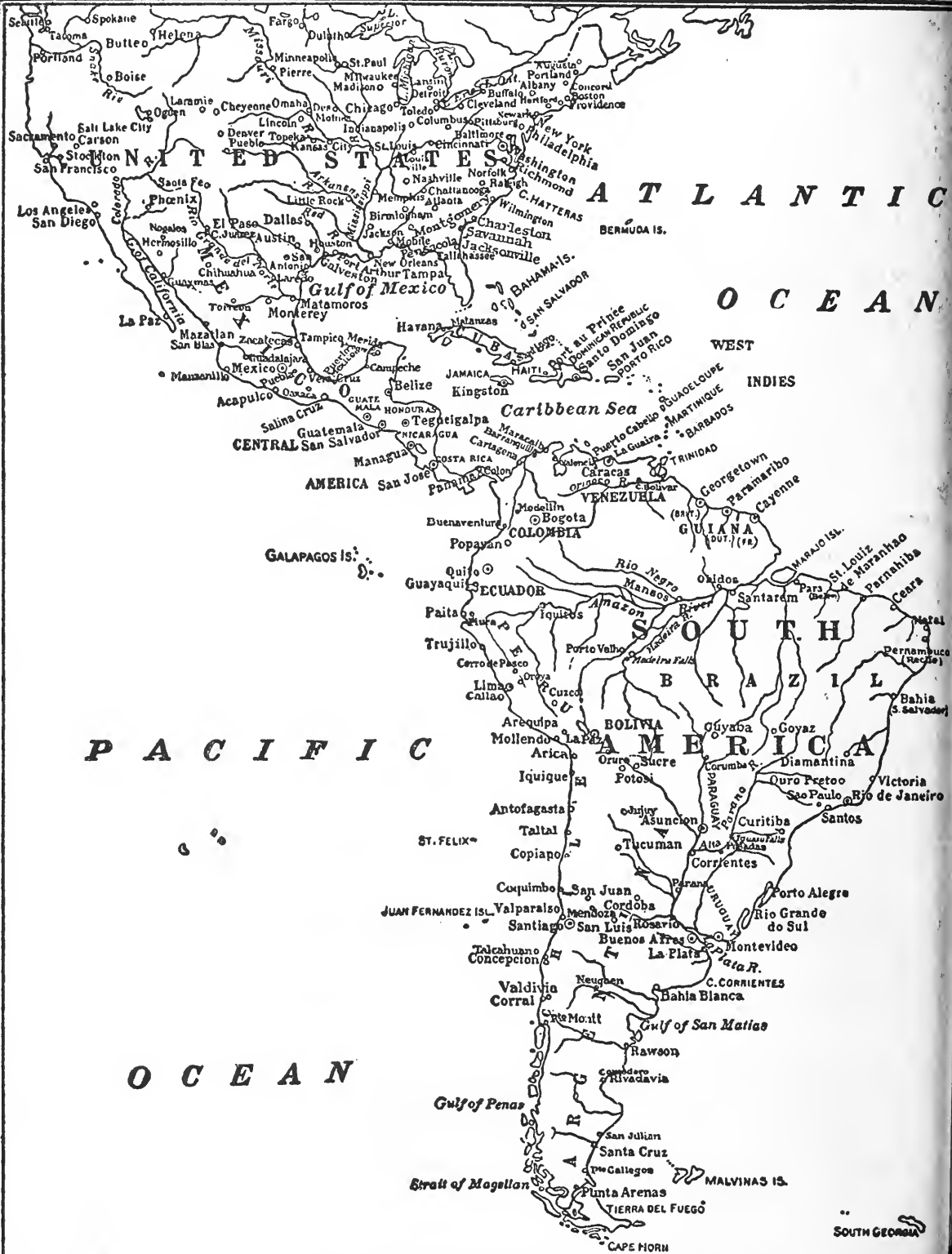
Bibliographies on Pan American topics, such as Inter-American Relations, History and Description, Children's Books on Latin America, Hemisphere Defense, Bookstores and Publishers in Latin Americas and Material in English on Latin American Literature.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



Celebrate Pan American Day, April 14

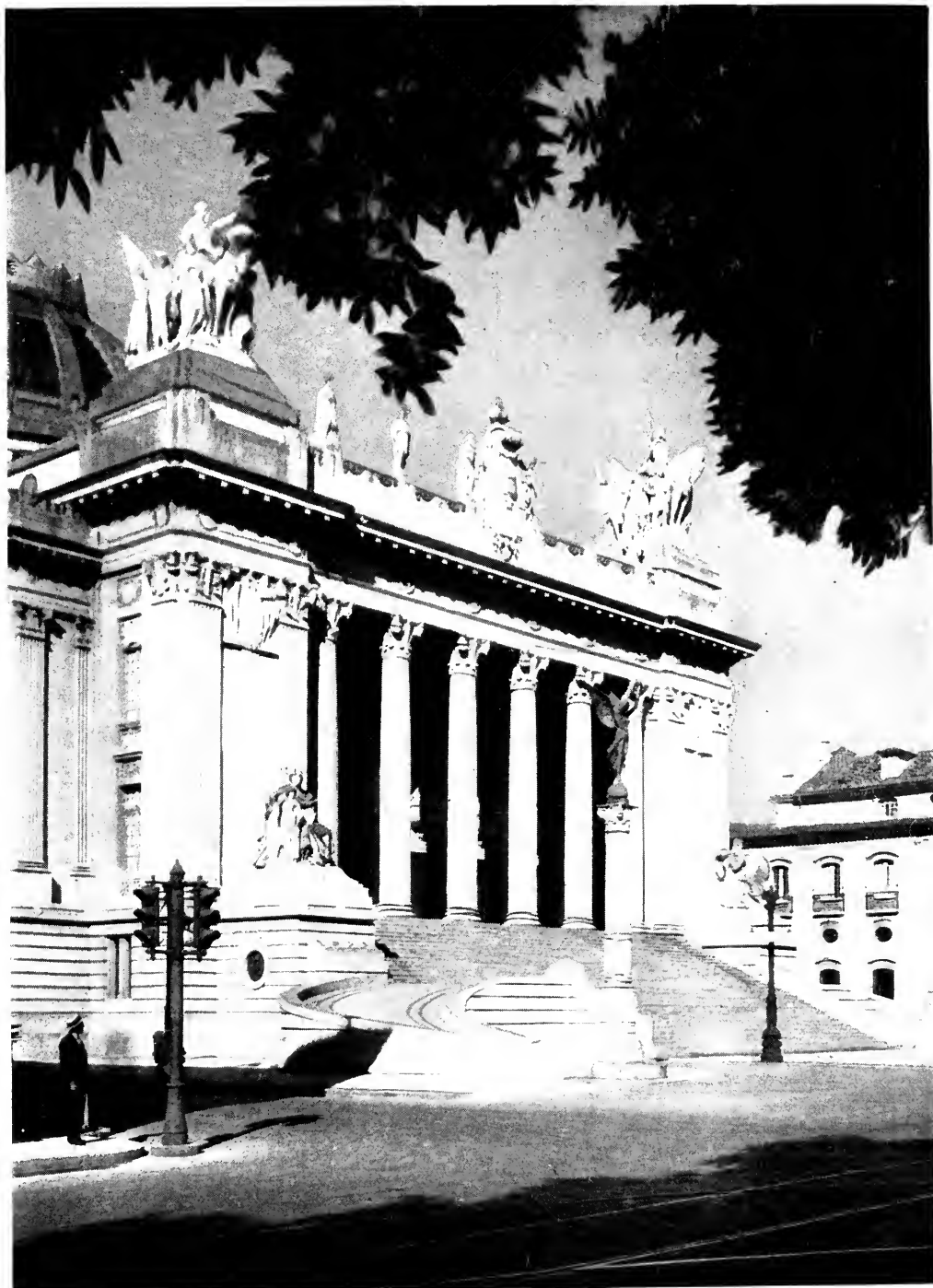
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(The contents of previous issues of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union
can be found in the "Readers' Guide" in your library)

ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: XOCHIPILLI, THE AZTEC GOD OF FLOWERS
IN THE GARDEN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION





Courtesy of DIPP

TIRADENTES PALACE, RIO DE JANEIRO

The plenary sessions of the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics were held in this stately building.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXVI, No. 4



APRIL 1942

The Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

Rio de Janeiro, January 15-28, 1942

L. S. ROWE

Director General of the Pan American Union

OF all the Pan American assemblies held by the American Republics since the first conference at Panama in 1826, the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, which took place at Rio de Janeiro from January 15 to 28 of this year, was in some respects the most significant because of the grave problems confronting the delegates. It was evident early in the discussion that most of the delegates fully realized the dangers facing the Americas. As a consequence the work of the Meeting was characterized by a unity of purpose and of policy unequalled in the history of the Americas.

If ever there was an outstanding instance

of "open covenants openly arrived at" it is to be found in the Rio Meeting. It is doubtful whether in the history of international relations there is another such example of the settled determination of a numerous group of nations to work for common purposes, to place the larger continental interests ahead of all selfish ends, and to labor enthusiastically for the great purpose for which the Conference was called—to defend the institutions, the territorial integrity and the liberties of the nations of America.

It was this spirit and this atmosphere of harmony and good will that, in the last analysis, assumed a significance quite as great as that of the concrete results ob-

tained. These results, of the highest importance, mark a real epoch in the history of Pan American cooperation and will have far-reaching influence not only upon the Americas but also upon the future course of Western civilization. The Meeting was indeed a "rendezvous with Destiny", in President Roosevelt's expressive phrase. Everybody who attended the Conference could not fail to be struck by the fact that the procedure in reaching conclusions strictly followed the democratic process. It was a meeting characterized by the freest expression of opinion and by the absence of any attempt on the part of the larger states to impress their opinion upon the less powerful. The Rio Meeting will ever remain an outstanding example of the value and efficacy not only of freedom of discussion but of conclusions freely arrived at.

It will be recalled that on December 9, 1941, the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Chile, in view of the attack on the United States by Japan, addressed a communication to the Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union requesting that the other American Governments be consulted with reference to the advisability of convening a third meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics. On December 10 the Government of the United States addressed the Director General of the Pan American Union, transmitting to him for the information of the Governing Board its proposal to the other American Republics that the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs be held at Rio de Janeiro during the first week of January, and submitting draft agenda for the proposed meeting. The communications of the Governments of Chile and the United States were transmitted to the other American Governments with a request to make such observations and suggestions as

they deemed appropriate. A special committee of the Governing Board gave careful consideration to all these suggestions and submitted its recommendations to a special meeting of the Governing Board held on December 17. At this meeting the definitive agenda was agreed upon and January 15, 1942, was set as the date for the opening session of the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs.

The agenda of the Meeting¹ included two major topics:

1. The protection of the Western Hemisphere.

2. Economic solidarity.

The Conference upon assembling was organized into two great committees corresponding to the above-mentioned topics, all twenty-one delegates being members of each committee. (In those cases in which a Minister of Foreign Affairs was unable to attend the sessions of a committee, the regulations permitted the designation of a substitute.) It is apparent, therefore, that the conclusions of each committee were in effect the conclusions of the Meeting.

It was inevitable that the major interest of the Meeting as well as the interest of the public should be directed to the questions involved in the political relations of the American Republics with the Axis powers. A resolution was offered by the representatives of Colombia, Mexico, and Venezuela calling for the immediate severance of diplomatic relations with the Tripartite Powers by the American Republics. It soon became evident, however, that unanimity could not be secured on the terms of this resolution as originally presented. Nineteen of the twenty-one Republics were prepared to adopt it, but Argentina and Chile held out for modification. As finally passed by unanimous vote, the resolution reads as follows:

¹ See BULLETIN, February 1942, p. 62.



Courtesy of DIPP

OPENING SESSION OF THE THIRD MEETING OF MINISTERS OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS

Dr. Alberto Guani, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Uruguay, is addressing the assembly.

1. The American Republics reaffirm their declaration to consider any act of aggression on the part of a non-American State against one of them as an act of aggression against all of them, constituting as it does an immediate threat to the liberty and independence of America.

2. The American Republics reaffirm their complete solidarity and their determination to cooperate jointly for their mutual protection until the effects of the present aggression against the Continent have disappeared.

3. The American Republics, in accordance with the procedures established by their own laws and in conformity with the position and circumstances obtaining in each country in the existing continental conflict, recommend the breaking of their diplomatic relations with Japan, Germany and Italy, since the first-mentioned State attacked and the other two declared war on an American country.

4. The American Republics declare that, prior to the reestablishment of the relations referred to in the preceding paragraph, they will consult

among themselves in order that their action may have a solidary character.

Some confusion was created in the public mind by the almost exclusive attention given in the press to the above-mentioned resolution. While this was the most spectacular conclusion reached by the Meeting it by no means deserves the position of overshadowing importance that it has received. Before the close of the Conference, it had been made effective by nineteen of the twenty-one Republics that had either declared war on or severed diplomatic relations with Germany, Italy and Japan, some of them having taken action immediately after the Japanese attack on the United States. The ten American Republics that have declared war on the Axis are: Costa Rica, Cuba,

the Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, and the United States. Those that have severed diplomatic relations are: Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Aside from the moral effect of the severance of diplomatic relations the most important result of the rupture of relations is that the closing of the Axis embassies, legations and consulates eliminates from most of this continent dangerous centers of propaganda, subversive activities, espionage and sabotage that had become one of the real dangers to the safety and security of the entire hemisphere.

From the standpoint of continental solidarity, the settlement of the long-standing territorial dispute between Ecuador and Peru, which on several occasions had given rise to armed clashes, was an unexpected but highly significant result of the Meeting. A group of the members of the Conference, imbued with a deep sense of responsibility for the domestic peace of the Americas, addressed itself resolutely to the task of finding a solution of the controversy. On the final day of the Meeting a compromise satisfactory to both parties was signed. Thus one of the most difficult and dangerous territorial disputes that have from time to time menaced the peace of the Western hemisphere was settled in a manner that does honor to both parties.

One of the most momentous resolutions adopted by the Meeting was the provision for the meeting at Washington of a Commission on Continental Defense, composed of military and naval representatives of all the Republics of the American Continent. This will assure unity of policy in the defense of the Continent.

So much attention has been given to what may be termed the political conclusions of the Meeting that the significance of

the economic measures adopted has largely been lost sight of. In effect, the Rio Meeting set up a cooperative continental system designed to safeguard the economic structure of all the nations of this continent. Provision was made in the first place for the severance of financial and commercial relations with the Axis powers, a most important measure supplementing the severance of diplomatic relations.²

In order to safeguard the currencies of the American Republics, it was decided to hold a meeting of the Ministers of Finance with a view to establishing a stabilization fund³ which not only would protect currencies from violent fluctuations, but would also tend to strengthen the economic ties between the nations of this continent.

A series of resolutions dealt with various other economic subjects,⁴ including: the assurance of an adequate supply of basic and strategic materials to the countries of this continent, especially those at war, according to a coordinated general plan to be formulated by the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee;⁵ the maintenance of the domestic economies of the consuming countries by equality of access to inter-American commerce and raw materials, preference being given, however, to nations at war; means for simplifying and expediting control of export licenses and priorities; increased efficiency of national and inter-American transportation facilities; a conference of representatives of central banks for standardizing procedure connected with bank credits and other financial transactions of citizens of Axis powers; and the industrialization of national raw materials. Notwithstanding the war it was hoped to increase

² See *Resolution V*, p. 191.

³ See *Resolution XV*, p. 191.

⁴ See *Resolutions II, III, and IV*, pp. 186, 188, 189.

⁵ This committee, created by the *First Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs*, has been meeting at the Pan American Union since November 15, 1939.



Courtesy of DIPP

THE PRESIDENT OF THE MEETING

Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil, was president of the meeting and chairman of the Political Committee.

the production of those food products and raw materials necessary not only to maintain the existing standard of living for all the peoples but also to raise that standard to a higher level.

Another series of resolutions of great importance to the present situation deals with the elimination of espionage, sabotage and subversive activity. An Inter-American Conference on the Coordination of Police and Judicial Measures, which will convene at Buenos Aires in May, will undoubtedly lay the foundations for interchange of information between the American Republics relating to these matters and at the same time coordinate the procedure in dealing with this menace. Provision is furthermore made for the appointment by the Governing Board of the Pan

American Union of a "Commission on Political Defense"⁶ to which will be entrusted the formulation of preventive measures for safeguarding the security of the American Republics against alien interference.

It was likewise recommended that immediate steps be taken "to restrict the operation or use of civil or commercial aircraft and the use of aviation facilities to *bona fide* citizens and enterprises of the American Republics or to citizens or enterprises of such other countries as have shown themselves, in the judgment of the respective Governments, to be in full sympathy with the principles of the Declaration of Lima."

Another important defense measure was the recommendation that each of the

⁶ See Resolution XVII, p. 192.

American Republics take the steps necessary to close all radio-telephone and radio-telegraph communication between the American Republics and the aggressor states except in so far as official communications of American Governments are concerned.

While devoting preferential attention to the immediate questions arising out of the present menace to the safety of the Americas, the Rio Meeting also gave thought to the solution of problems that will arise after the war.⁷ With this end in view the Governing Board of the Pan American Union was requested to convene an Inter-American Technical Economic Conference entrusted with the study of present and post-war economic problems. Furthermore, the Inter-American Juridical Committee (a new title for the Inter-American Neutrality Committee, which has been sitting at Rio since 1939) was charged with the study of all matters relative to international organization in the juridical and political field in the post-war period.

This brief summary of the results of the Rio Meeting outlines a record of accomplishment of which the American Republics have every reason to be proud. At a time of imminent danger they have shown not only a united front but also an earnest desire to be helpful to one another during this critical period. The resolutions adopted at Rio and the economic and

⁷ See *Resolutions XXV and XXVI, P. 193.*

political machinery thus set up will have far-reaching influence upon inter-American relations for many years after the world conflict comes to an end. The spirit of Pan American unity shown by this Conference will serve as an example as well as a stimulus in the world organization which must inevitably be created if future peace is to be assured.

In closing this presentation of the results of the Rio Meeting it is but fitting that tribute be paid to the admirable arrangements made by the Brazilian Government for the organization and conduct of the meeting. Practically the entire Ministry of Foreign Affairs with all its personnel was placed at the disposal of the conference. The statesmanlike management of the deliberations of the Meeting by its able President, His Excellency Dr. Oswaldo Aranha, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Brazil, was an important factor in bringing about early and unanimous conclusions. The service of the Secretariat under the direction of Ambassador José de Paula Rodrigues Alves, Secretary General of the Meeting, and his assistants, Senhor José Roberto de Macedo Soares and Senhor Fernando Lobo, was of the most efficient character.

The hospitality of the Brazilian Government and the Brazilian people knew no bounds. The warm reception accorded to all the members of the conference and the atmosphere of good will that prevailed were important factors in its success.

APPENDIX

II. PRODUCTION OF STRATEGIC MATERIALS

WHEREAS:

1. Continental solidarity must be translated into positive and efficient action of the highest significance, which action can be no other than an economic mobilization of the American Republics capable of rapidly and fully guaranteeing the

supply of strategic and basic materials necessary to the defense of the Hemisphere;

2. This mobilization should include all activities which will advance the desired end, and must have the preferential character which its nature and purpose require;

3. In order to insure the smooth carrying out of the suggested plan, every positive action must

be taken; all existing obstacles or those which may in the future appear should be eliminated or minimized; and all contributory factors should be strengthened;

4. Commercial speculation should be prevented from taking unfair advantage of the situation;

5. Guarantees should be given for the continuance of long-term contracts and for the maintenance of prices, equitable both for the consumer and profitable to the producer, to permit the attainment and maintenance of a fair wage level;

6. Consideration must be given to measures providing for transition to the post-war period and the resulting readjustment with a minimum of disturbance to production and commerce; taking steps to protect, at the opportune time, producers against competition from goods produced in countries with a low standard of living;

7. Credit operations should have, as far as possible, an economic character, and should take into account the real ability of the debtors to repay;

8. There should exist in each country of the Americas special organizations to formulate promptly the respective national plans for economic mobilization;

9. A Pan American organization should formulate coordinated general plans of mobilization on the basis of the national plans above indicated; and

10. The Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee can efficiently carry out these functions if its authority and powers are enlarged,

The Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

RECOMMENDS:

1. That, as a practical expression of continental solidarity, an economic mobilization of the American Republics be effected, with a view to assuring to the countries of this Hemisphere, and particularly to those at war, an adequate supply of basic and strategic materials in the shortest possible time.

2. That such mobilization include mining, agricultural, industrial, and commercial activities related to the supply not only of materials for strictly military use but also of products essential for civilian needs.

3. That full recognition be given to the imperative character and extreme urgency of the existing situation when formulating measures necessary to effect economic mobilization.

4. That the mobilization include measures to

stimulate production and other measures designed to eliminate or minimize administrative formalities and the regulations and restrictions which impede the production and free flow of basic and strategic materials.

5. That, in addition, measures be adopted to strengthen the finances of the producing countries.

6. That the American nations take measures to prevent commercial speculation from increasing export prices of basic and strategic products above the limits fixed for the respective domestic markets.

7. That, insofar as possible, the increase of production be assured by bilateral or multilateral agreements or contracts which provide for purchases during long periods at prices which are equitable for the consumer, remunerative to the producer and which provide a fair standard of wages for the workers of the Americas, in which producers are protected against competition from products originating in areas wherein real wages are unduly low; and which make provision for the period of transition after the war and the readjustments which will follow in a manner guaranteeing the continuance of adequate production and permitting the existence of trade under conditions equitable to producers.

8. That the service of financial obligations incurred to maintain and stimulate production in each country be made conditional, insofar as possible, upon the proceeds of its exports.

9. That the American nations which do not possess appropriate agencies organize special commissions prior to April 30, 1942, to formulate national plans for economic mobilization.

10. That the said commissions provide the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee with the necessary material so that it may formulate a coordinated general plan for economic mobilization.

11. That the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee be further charged with preparing a list, to be periodically revised, of the basic and strategic materials considered by each country as necessary for the defense of the Hemisphere; and

RESOLVES:

12. That, in order to enable the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee to carry out the new duties entrusted to it, its means of operation be expanded immediately, and that it be empowered to request the American Governments to execute the inter-American economic agreements which they have previously approved.

III. MAINTENANCE OF THE INTERNAL ECONOMY OF THE AMERICAN COUNTRIES

WHEREAS:

1. The First and Second Meetings of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics recommended that there be established, among them, a close and sincere cooperation in order to protect their economic and financial structure, maintain their fiscal equilibrium, safeguard the stability of their currencies, promote and expand their commerce and, in addition, declared that the American nations continue to adhere to the liberal principles of international trade, conducted with peaceful motives and based upon equality of treatment and fair and equitable trade practices, and that they do everything in their power to strengthen their economic position, to improve further the trade and other economic relations among themselves, by devising and applying appropriate measures to lessen the difficulties, disadvantages and dangers arising from disturbed and dislocated world conditions;

2. The dislocations of the economy of the American nations caused by the war demand, more than ever before, common and coordinated action, in order that their trade may be intensified in accordance with their mutual needs and upon the basis of the greatest possible equality;

3. The establishment of adequate facilities for commercial credit, on the part of nations which produce raw materials, industrial machinery or manufactured articles, is an indispensable requirement for the maintenance of a sound economy in the consuming countries;

4. The fixing of prices and ceilings on raw materials and foodstuffs should be based upon a fair correlation, which takes into account not only costs of production, transportation, insurance and a reasonable profit, but also the general price level of products exported by the country which imports such raw materials and foodstuffs;

5. The systems of priority and licenses established by some countries with respect to the exportation of materials, which are related to their defense requirements, have brought about consequences affecting commercial interchange and it is therefore necessary to recommend adequate systems and measures to alleviate said consequences,

The Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

RESOLVES:

1. To recommend to the nations which produce raw materials, industrial machinery and other

articles essential for the maintenance of the domestic economies of the consuming countries that they do everything possible to supply such articles and products in quantities sufficient to prevent a scarcity thereof, which might bring about consequences detrimental to the economic life of the American peoples. The application of this recommendation is subject to the practical limitations of the existing emergency and shall not endanger the security or the defense of the exporting nations.

2. To recommend that all the nations of this continent have access, with the greatest possible degree of equality, to inter-American commerce and to the raw materials which they require for the satisfactory and prosperous development of their respective economies, provided, however, that they shall give preferential treatment to the nations at war for equal access to materials essential to their defense; and that, in agreements which may be concluded, the essential needs of other American countries be considered with a view to preventing dislocations in their domestic economies.

3. To recommend to the countries which export industrial raw materials, foodstuffs, manufactured products or industrial machinery, that they establish adequate, ample, liberal and effective systems of credit which will facilitate the acquisition of such of these products as may be required by the industry and commerce of the consumer nations to maintain their economy upon firm foundations, and that this be done in such a way as to lessen and alleviate the adverse effects upon the consumer nations of the extension of the war and the closing down of non-American markets.

4. To urge the Governments of America to adopt necessary measures to harmonize prices on the following bases:

(a) That sharp increases in the prices of export products shall not be permitted;

(b) That the distributors or processors of imported goods shall likewise not be permitted to increase unduly the prices to be paid by the consumer;

(c) That the maximum purchase price fixed by an American Republic for any product or article which it imports from another American Republic shall be submitted to consultation, if deemed advisable, by the Governments of the interested countries;

(d) That in their price policies the American Republics endeavor to establish a fair relation between the prices of foodstuffs, raw materials and manufactured articles.

5. Finally to recommend to the American

Governments the following standards for the purpose of improving their economic relations:

(a) The establishment, for the control of exports, of simple administrative systems of the greatest possible autonomy based upon rapid and efficient methods which will satisfy essential requirements promptly, especially for the maintenance of the basic industries of each country;

(b) The adoption by the governments of exporting countries of a system of allocation to each country of products and articles subject to priorities and licenses which are essential to the domestic economy of the importing countries;

(c) The appointment by exporting countries which maintain systems of priorities, licenses or allocations of representatives in the capitals of the importing countries to cooperate with the appropriate organizations of the latter in the study of questions arising in connection with the export and import of products and articles subject to allocations or special controls, so as to accelerate procedure and to diminish, as much as possible, other difficulties involved in the interchange of such products and articles. The recommendation or opinion of such representatives shall constitute, in principle, a recognition on their part of the need and desirability of such imports;

(d) The prompt exchange of statistics relating to consumer needs and to the production of raw materials, foodstuffs and manufactured products, utilizing, whenever appropriate, such organizations as the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee or others which appropriately may facilitate and stimulate commercial interchange among the nations of the Americas.

IV. MOBILIZATION OF TRANSPORTATION FACILITIES

WHEREAS:

1. The problem of increasing to the highest degree the efficiency of transportation facilities among the Republics of the Western Hemisphere is of great importance in view of the difficulties arising from the existing emergency;

2. The establishment of the greatest possible coordination of the various inland waterway, land, maritime, and air services of the American Republics is indispensable for their most effective use;

3. The difficulties of transporting essential articles and materials normally exported and imported by each nation could provoke economic and social dislocation and diminish or paralyze

its industrial activities, a particularly serious situation when such activities are devoted primarily to the production of articles or materials necessary for the defense of the Continent; and

4. In order properly to provide for defense and to develop inter-American commerce it is indispensable to improve and expand the systems of communication among the countries of the Continent,

The Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

RESOLVES:

1. To recommend to the Governments of the American Republics:

(a) That they adopt immediately, in so far as possible, adequate measures to expand and improve all the communications systems of importance to continental defense and to the development of commerce between the American nations;

(b) That they make every effort consistent with national or continental defense fully to utilize and develop their respective internal transportation facilities in order to assure the rapid delivery of those goods which are essential to the maintenance of their respective economies;

(c) That through their national authorities, the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, and all other instruments of inter-American economic cooperation which may have been established, they take every appropriate measure individually and jointly to improve and supplement inter-American communication facilities—air, maritime, land, inland waterway—related to the economy and defense of the Western Hemisphere and to the other objectives set forth in this resolution;

(d) That they adopt measures to insure the allocation of sufficient shipping tonnage for general trade and cooperate in creating and facilitating, by every means in their power, the maintenance of adequate maritime services, utilizing especially all the vessels that are immobilized in their ports, belonging to countries at war with any American nation;

(e) That those with merchant fleets consider the necessity of maintaining in service sufficient vessels to guarantee maritime transportation which will permit the nations of the Continent to import and export products essential to their respective economies and that, in cooperation with the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, maritime

organizations functioning in various American nations and the Inter-American Maritime Technical Commission, they endeavor to coordinate shipping between the American Republics so that the vessels now in continental service, without omitting or changing existing stops, may make such calls at ports of nations, which are most affected in certain regions of the Hemisphere, as are necessary in order to assure them regular and suitable transportation;

(f) That they take, in so far as possible, measures necessary to minimize expenses at ports of call, such as port dues and lighthouse charges, etc.;

(g) That they endeavor to expand port facilities and provide means necessary for the rapid repair of damaged vessels and for their normal maintenance;

(h) That they undertake to speed up internal transportation and increase the carrying capacity of railway systems, taking steps rapidly to complete routes important for continental defense which are under construction or reconstruction;

(i) That they study the desirability of recognizing the right of each State to full participation in international trade under a system of free access to transportation for all classes of cargo in conformity with the provisions of existing international agreements and consistent with the legislation of each country;

(j) That they undertake to improve and enlarge existing airports and to construct new airports equipped with necessary installations and repair shops, so as to create a system of air transportation, with terminals in the Americas, which fully meets the requirements of inter-American and domestic air services;

(k) That they speed up the construction of the unfinished sections of the Pan American Highway and the improvement of the sections already constructed so as to provide efficient transportation in the Hemisphere and permit the development of inter-American and domestic commerce, connecting centers of production with centers of consumption. To this end, there are expressly reiterated the conclusions approved in recommendation number LII of the Lima Conference of 1938 and in resolution number XXIII of the Habana Meeting of 1940; and

(l) That they give full support and render the fullest practicable measure of cooperation to the work of the Inter-American Financial

and Economic Advisory Committee and of its Inter-American Maritime Technical Commission in all their problems and, particularly, in the field of merchant shipping, taking joint steps necessary to enable the Governments of the American Republics to mobilize, in the fullest and most effective manner, all the ships available in the Western Hemisphere, so as to give priority to the transportation of strategic and basic materials essential for the defense of the Continent and for the maintenance of the economic welfare of the American Republics.

2. To recommend to the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee and the Inter-American Maritime Technical Commission:

(a) That they suggest to the Governments measures necessary in order, by previous agreement between administrative agencies of such Governments, aviation and shipping concerns, and public or private railway companies operating in the American Republics, to promote and improve the entire system of inter-American transportation, endeavoring to guarantee regular and coordinated mobilization and provision of means necessary for the transportation both of products which are imported and exported by each of the countries as well as for the effective and comfortable travel of their peoples;

(b) That they encourage the conclusion of agreements regarding the matters set forth in the preceding paragraph between countries that wish to enter into them, and study ways of replacing existing means of transportation should they become inadequate;

(c) That they study the possibility of allocating adequate and sufficient transportation to each country, taking into account not only tonnage but also the speed of and the facilities for loading and discharging vessels which carry essential raw materials, and that, moreover, they encourage the fixing, from time to time, of maximum freight rates;

(d) That they study a general plan of inter-American maritime transportation, taking into account the availability of vessels and the minimum requirements of each of the Republics of the Continent, so that they will all be linked, by regular and adequate services, with their principal import and export markets;

(e) That they examine the desirability of applying the "Cash and Carry System" to the transportation of commodities.

V. SEVERANCE OF COMMERCIAL AND FINANCIAL RELATIONS

WHEREAS:

1. At the Second Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held at Habana in July 1940, it was declared that any attempt on the part of a non-American State against the integrity or inviolability of the territory, the sovereignty or the political independence of an American State should be considered as an act of aggression against all of the American States;

2. As a result of the aggression committed against the Western Hemisphere a state of war exists between American Republics and non-American States, which affects the political and economic interests of the whole Continent and demands the adoption of measures for the defense and security of all of the American Republics;

3. All of the American Republics have already adopted measures which subject to some control the exportation or re-exportation of merchandise; most of the American Republics have instituted systems of restriction and control of financial and commercial transactions with the nations signatory to the Tripartite Pact and the territories dominated by them, and others have adopted measures to curb other alien economic activities prejudicial to their welfare; and all the American Republics have approved the recommendations of the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee regarding the immediate placing into service of the merchant vessels of non-American registry lying immobilized in American ports,

The Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

RECOMMENDS:

1. That the Governments of the American Republics, in a manner consistent with the usual practices and the legislation of the respective countries, adopt immediately:

(a) Any additional measures necessary to cut off for the duration of the present Hemispheric emergency all commercial and financial intercourse, direct or indirect, between the Western Hemisphere and the nations signatory to the Tripartite Pact and the territories dominated by them;

(b) Measures to eliminate all other financial and commercial activities prejudicial to the welfare and security of the American Republics, measures which shall have, among others, the following purposes:

(i) To prevent, within the American Republics, all commercial and financial transactions inimical to the security of the Western Hemisphere, which are entered into directly or indirectly, by or for the benefit of the members of the Tripartite Pact, the territories dominated by them, as well as the nationals of any of them, whether real or juridical persons, it being understood that real persons may be excepted if they are resident within an American Republic and on condition that they are controlled according to the following paragraph;

(ii) To supervise and control all commercial and financial transactions within the American Republics by nationals of the states signatory to the Tripartite Pact, or of the territories dominated by them, who are resident within the American Republics, and to prevent all transactions of whatsoever nature which are inimical to the security of the Western Hemisphere.

Whenever a government of an American Republic considers it desirable and in accordance with its national interest and its own legislation, and especially if any of the aforesaid measures, when applied to concrete cases, should be prejudicial to its national economy, the properties, interests, and enterprises of such states and nationals which exist within its jurisdiction, may be placed in trust or subjected to permanent administrative intervention for purposes of control; moreover, such government of an American Republic may resort to sales to its nationals, provided that the proceeds thereof be subject to the same control and to similar regulations as those applicable to the funds of the above-mentioned aliens.

2. That the Governments of the American Republics adopt, severally or jointly, measures to counteract any adverse effects upon their respective economies which may result from the application of this recommendation. Special consideration should be given to measures to avoid the problems of partial or total unemployment which might arise in the American countries as a result of the application of the measures of control and restriction of the activities of aliens.

XV. INTERNATIONAL STABILIZATION FUND

WHEREAS:

1. A more effective mobilization and utilization of foreign exchange resources would be of assistance in the struggle against aggression and would

contribute to the realization of the economic objectives set forth at the First and Second Meetings of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Panama and Habana; and

2. The American Republics which are combined in a common effort to maintain their political and economic independence can cooperate in the creation of an organization to promote stability of foreign exchanges rates, encourage the international movement of productive capital, facilitate the reduction of artificial and discriminatory barriers to the movement of goods, assist in the correction of the maldistribution of gold, strengthen monetary systems, and facilitate the maintenance of monetary policies that avoid serious inflation or deflation,

The Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

RECOMMENDS:

1. That the Governments of the American Republics participate in a special conference of Ministers of Finance or their representatives to be called for the purpose of considering the establishment of an international stabilization fund;

2. That the conference in considering the establishment of such a fund shall formulate the plan of organization, powers and resources necessary to the proper functioning of the fund, shall determine the conditions requisite to participation in the fund, and shall propose principles to guide the fund in its operation.

XVII. SUBVERSIVE ACTIVITIES

WHEREAS:

1. Acts of aggression of the nature contemplated in Resolution XV adopted by the Second Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Habana have now taken place against the integrity and inviolability of the territory of an American Republic;

2. Acts of aggression of a non-military character, including systematic espionage, sabotage, and subversive propaganda are being committed on this Continent, inspired by and under the direction of member States of the Tripartite Pact and States subservient to them, and the fate of numbers of the formerly free nations of Europe has shown them to be both preliminary to and an integral part of a program of military aggression;

3. The American Republics are determined to maintain their integrity and solidarity in the emergency created by aggression by non-American States and to give the fullest cooperation in the establishment and enforcement of extraordinary measures of continental defense;

4. The Second Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics recommended that the necessary steps be taken to prevent the carrying on of such subversive activities in the resolutions entitled:

“II. Norms Concerning Diplomatic and Consular Functions.”

“III. Coordination of Police and Judicial Measures for the Defense of Society and Institutions of Each American State.”

“V. Precautionary Measures with Reference to the Issuance of Passports.”

“VI. Activities Directed from Abroad Against Domestic Institutions.”

“VII. Diffusion of Doctrines Tending to Place in Jeopardy the Common Inter-American Democratic Ideal or to Threaten the Security and Neutrality of the American Republics.”

5. The gravity of the present emergency requires that the American States, individually and in concert, take additional and more stringent measures to protect themselves against groups and individuals that seek to weaken their defenses from within,

The Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

RESOLVES:

1. To reaffirm the determination of the American Republics to prevent individuals or groups within their respective jurisdictions from engaging in activities detrimental to the individual or collective security and welfare of the American Republics as expressed in Resolutions II, III, V, VI, and VII of the Second Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics.

2. To recommend to the Governments of the American Republics the adoption of similar legislative measures tending to prevent or punish as crimes, acts against the democratic institutions of the States of the Continent in the same manner as attempts against the integrity, independence, or sovereignty of any one of them; and that the Governments of the American Republics maintain and expand their systems of surveillance designed to prevent subversive activities of nationals of non-American countries, as individuals or groups of individuals, that originate in or are directed from a foreign country and are intended to interfere with or limit the efforts of the American Republics individually or collectively to preserve their integrity and independence, and the integrity and solidarity of the American Continent.

3. To recommend to the American Republics that they adopt in conformance with their constitutions and laws, regulatory provisions that are, as far as possible, in keeping with the memorandum¹ which is attached to this Resolution for purposes of information.

4. To recommend, according to Resolution VII of the Habana Meeting on the subject of anti-democratic propaganda, that the Governments of the American Republics control, within their respective national jurisdictions, the existence of organizations directed or supported by elements of non-American States which are now or may in the future be at war with American countries, whose activities are harmful to American security; and proceed to terminate their existence if it is established that they are centers of totalitarian propaganda.

5. That, to study and coordinate the measures recommended in this Resolution, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union shall elect, prior to March 1, 1942, a committee of seven members to be known as "The Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense."

6. The Governing Board of the Pan American Union, after consulting the Governments of the American Republics, shall determine the functions of this committee, prepare the regulations which shall govern its activities, and fix its budget of expenditures.

XXV. POST-WAR PROBLEMS

WHEREAS:

1. World peace must be based on the principles of respect for law, of justice and of cooperation which inspire the nations of America and which have been expressed at inter-American meetings held from 1889 to date;

2. A new order of peace must be supported by economic principles which will insure equitable and lasting international trade with equal opportunities for all nations;

3. Collective security must be founded not only on political institutions but also on just, effective, and liberal economic systems;

4. It is indispensable to undertake the immediate study of the bases for this new economic and political order; and

5. It is an imperative necessity for the countries of America to increase their productive capacity;

¹Not reprinted here. See "Report on the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics," submitted to the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, Washington, 1942.

to secure, from their international trade, returns which will permit them adequately to remunerate labor and improve the standard of living of workers; to protect and preserve the health of their peoples and develop their civilization and culture,

The Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

RESOLVES:

1. To request the Governing Board of the Pan American Union to convoke an Inter-American Technical Economic Conference charged with the study of present and post-war economic problems.

2. To entrust the Inter-American Juridical Committee with the formulation of specific recommendations relative to the international organization in the juridical and political fields, and in the field of international security.

3. To entrust the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee with a similar function in the economic field, to make the necessary preparations for the Inter-American Technical Economic Conference, referred to in the first paragraph of this Resolution.

4. To request the Pan American Union to appoint an Executive Committee to receive such projects as the American nations may present, and to submit said projects, respectively, to the Inter-American Juridical Committee and to the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee.

5. To request the Pan American Union to direct this Executive Committee to submit the recommendations of the Inter-American Juridical Committee to the Governments of the American Republics so that the conclusions reached may be adopted at a subsequent Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs.

6. To request the Pan American Union to determine, in agreement with the Governments of the American Republics, the date and place of meeting of the Inter-American Technical Economic Conference, referred to in the first paragraph of this Resolution.

XXVI. INTER-AMERICAN JURIDICAL COMMITTEE

WHEREAS:

1. In the General Declaration of Neutrality of the American Republics, signed in Panama, the Inter-American Neutrality Committee was created for the purpose of studying and formulating recommendations with respect to the problems of neutrality; and

2. The profound alteration in the international situation in America demands a substantial expansion of the scope of said Committee,

The Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics

RESOLVES:

1. To pay tribute and to congratulate His Excellency Afranio de Mello Franco, Chairman of the Inter-American Neutrality Committee and its members: Their Excellencies Luis A. Podestá Costa, Mariano Fontecilla, A. Aguilar Machado, Charles G. Fenwick, Gustavo Herrera, Roberto Córdoba, Manuel Francisco Jiménez Ortiz, Salvador Martínez Mercado, Eduardo Labougle, Carlos Eduardo Stolk and Fernando Lagarde y Vigil, who have been members or are at present members of this Committee, for the valuable services they have rendered to the American Republics and in the development of international law.

2. That the Inter-American Neutrality Committee at present existing will continue to function in its present form under the name of "Inter-American Juridical Committee," will have its seat at Rio de Janeiro and may meet temporarily, if it deems it necessary, in other American capitals.

3. That the members of the Inter-American Juridical Committee will be the jurists especially appointed by their respective Governments, and that they will have no other duties than those pertaining to the Committee.

4. The Inter-American Juridical Committee, in exceptional cases, may have recourse to the services of technical experts which it considers indispensable for the most efficient performance of its duties, and the salaries of these experts will be met by the American States through the intermediary of the Pan American Union.

5. The Committee may also invite American jurists, whom they consider to be specialists on specific subjects, to take part in their deliberations on special juridical matters.

6. The Committee will have as its object:

(a) To study, in accordance with experience and the development of events, the juridical problems created for the American Republics by the world war and those which are submitted to it in accordance with the resolutions approved at the Meetings of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs or at the International Conferences of American States;

(b) To continue the studies on the subject of contraband of war and on the project of a code relative to the principles and rules of neutrality;

(c) To report on possible claims arising from the requisition or use of immobilized merchant vessels or those under the flag of a non-American enemy, or belonging to States whose territories are occupied by a non-American enemy; as well as on possible claims by any American Republic against a non-American enemy State for unlawful acts committed to the detriment of such Republic, its nationals or their property;

(d) To develop and coordinate the work of codifying international law, without prejudice to the duties entrusted to other existing organizations;

(e) To formulate recommendations with regard to the manner of solving the problems mentioned under subparagraph (a), transmitting the same to the Governments through the Pan American Union, or directly when it considers it necessary, on condition that the Union be duly informed.

A Song from Sor Juana

JAMES C. BARDIN

Professor of Romance Languages, University of Virginia

THE celebrated nun of Mexico, Sor Juana Inés de la Cruz, called by her justly proud countrymen "The Tenth Muse," lived and died in the 17th century and was notable for her fine achievements as a poet and playwright. While she is chiefly esteemed for her extraordinarily lovely lyric verse, some of her dramatic writings are deserving of a high place. Not the least among these is her three-act play, *Los Empeños de una Casa*, which may reasonably be called in English: *A Household Plagued by Love*. She also wrote and published three *autos* (symbolical religious plays in one act), one of which—*The Divine Narcissus*—is regarded by competent critics as one of the finest plays of its type written in Spanish.

Sor Juana's delicate sensibility and exquisite art make her lyric verses stand out, not only among the best written in her own epoch but also among the best that have been written in Spanish. A very fine example of her skill in writing lyric poetry is to be found in her play, *A Household Plagued by Love*, as will presently appear.

This play follows the models of the "cloak and sword" plays of the Spanish "Golden Age" theatre. Its scene is laid in Toledo, and the time of the action may be taken to be "some time in the 17th century." The plot develops a typical love intrigue of the epoch: Doña Leonor, the leading lady, is in love with Don Carlos, and plans to elope with him. Don Pedro, a young gallant, is also in love with Doña Leonor; he gets wind of the elopement,

and, aided by some of his friends, he manages to frustrate it. Two emissaries of Don Pedro accost Don Carlos as he and his lady are stealing away from her father's house, and, in the course of the altercation that follows, Don Carlos seriously wounds one of the men. At this point, Don Pedro and some friends arrive, and, pretending to be police officers, they seize Doña Leonor and force Don Carlos to flee. Don Pedro takes Doña Leonor to his house "for her protection" and puts her in charge of his sister, Doña Ana. A little while later, believing he is being pursued by the police, Don Carlos and his servant, Castaño, rush into Don Pedro's house and ask for sanctuary, which, according to the laws of Spanish hospitality, has to be granted them.

Not that Doña Ana, to whom Don Carlos makes his appeal, objects. She was half-way affianced to a certain Don Juan, but she really was head-over-heels in love with Don Carlos. Thus we have Doña Leonor with reasons for being suspicious of Doña Ana, and Doña Ana with abundant cause to be jealous of Doña Leonor. Don Pedro, of course, is jealous of Don Carlos; but the latter, trusting in Doña Leonor's good faith, can't make up his mind whether or not he should be jealous of Don Pedro.

As the action develops, Doña Leonor's difficulties become so fearsome that at last she yields to a deep melancholy. Don Pedro, thinking to distract her mind and, no doubt, also hoping to advance his suit, summons musicians to play and sing for the distressed lady. In the fifth scene of the second act, laid in the garden of Don Ped-

ro's house, the musicians assemble, and Doña Leonor, Doña Ana and Don Pedro seat themselves near them. Don Carlos and Castaño are inside the house, standing behind a barred window, where they can see but not be seen; and near them, in the garden, stands Celia, Doña Ana's saucy maid. In the song that follows, Sor Juana brings out clearly and cleverly the amorous difficulty that is plaguing each of the characters:

MUSICIANS

Of all the pains that love imparts,
Which pain most sorely tries our hearts?

1st VOICE

A loved one's silent, cold disdain
Doth cause the most heart-breaking pain—
For love can not worse evil know.

1st CHORUS

Ah, no!

1st VOICE

'Tis so!

2nd CHORUS

What, then?

2nd VOICE

It is the agony

That's born of gnawing jealousy—
No greater pain from love can flow.

2nd CHORUS

Ah, no!

2nd VOICE

'Tis so!

1st CHORUS

What, then?

3rd VOICE

'Tis grieving night and day
When one's dear love is long away—
Love can no drearier grief bestow.

1st CHORUS

Ah, no!

3rd VOICE

'Tis so!

2nd CHORUS

What, then?

4th VOICE

'Tis anxious cares that blight
One's bliss in love's supreme delight—
For none can thus love's true joy know.

2nd CHORUS

Ah, no!

4th VOICE

'Tis so!

1st CHORUS

What, then?

5th VOICE

'Tis being kept apart
When in my own and my love's heart
Two equal flames of passion glow.

1st CHORUS

Ah, no!

1st VOICE

'Tis so!

2nd CHORUS

Oh, thou, who just now mad'st reply—
'Tis thou, and thou alone, say I,
Who know'st how love's wound burns and
smarts!

1st CHORUS

Of all the pains that love imparts,
Which pain most sorely tries our hearts?

DON PEDRO

Ah, Leonor, this I declare—
The pain our singers mentioned first
Would surely be for me the worst;
For when love's sorrows I compare,
I know 'twould hardest be to bear
The endless, hopeless, bitter pain
Born of a loved one's cold disdain:
For scorn deals love the deadliest blow.

DOÑA LEONOR

Ah, no!

DON PEDRO

'Tis so!

DOÑA ANA

Nay, brother, I can not agree—
For to my mind it is quite plain
That love denied gives greater pain
When tortured by vain jealousy;
For—added to the agony
Of lacking what one loves and wants—
Is envy that corrodes and haunts,
That breaks the heart and brings us low.

DOÑA LEONOR

Ah, no!

DOÑA ANA

'Tis so!

DOÑA LEONOR

I think—though this thought may be spurned!—
That what most quickly can destroy
Is love that one can not enjoy,
Though one is sure his love's returned;
The heart denied, the soul that's burned
In fruitless flames, can find no peace:
For as unquenched desires increase,
So do love's sorrows greater grow.

DOÑA ANA

Ah, no!

DOÑA LEONOR

'Tis so!

DON CARLOS

Alas, Castaño, I would swear
That of misfortunes that befall
Sharp jealousy's the worst of all,
If but to feel it I could dare;
But since my life love doth not spare,
If fear of jealousy should slay
My soul before I feel its sway,
No greater ill could mortal know.

CASTAÑO

Ah, no!

DON CARLOS

'Tis so!

And in the end, the valet and the lady's
maid, parodying the metaphysical love-
making of their betters, add a touch of
plebeian humor and realism.

CASTAÑO

Ah, Sir, love used me far, far worse
When my poor heart—so pure, so staid!—
Was captured by a lady's maid
When I had nothing in my purse;
When gifts are meager, love's adverse,
And I am lost ere I begin:
Her heart I can not, can not win
For lack of something to bestow!

MUSICIANS

Ah, no!

CASTAÑO

'Tis so!

CELIA

Love played a trick that is not fair
By slyly bringing to my feet
A dozen lackeys, trim and neat,
Whose pockets bulge with naught but air;
I'm wroth because, though I'm aware
That I should be their pampered pet,
I smile and smile—and nothing get:
And you'll agree that's cause for woe!

MUSICIANS

Ah, no!

CELIA

'Tis so!

Since the works of Sor Juana are not, un-
fortunately, easily accessible, the Spanish
original of the song is offered for those who
read Spanish:

MÚSICA

¿Cuál es la pena más grave
Que en las penas de amor cabe?

VOZ 1ª

El carecer de favor
Será la pena mayor,
Puesto que es el mayor mal.

CORO 1º

No es tal.

VOZ 1ª

Sí es tal.

CORO 2º

Pues ¿cuál es?

VOZ 2ª

Son los desvelos
A que ocasionan los celos,
Que es un dolor sin igual.

CORO 2º

No es tal.

VOZ 2ª

Sí es tal.

CORO 1º

Pues ¿cuál es?

VOZ 3ª

Es la impaciencia
A que ocasiona la ausencia,
Que es un letargo mortal.

CORO 1º

No es tal.

VOZ 3ª

Sí es tal.

CORO 2º

Pues ¿cuál es?

VOZ 4ª

Es el cuidado
Con que se goza lo amado
Que nunca es dicha cabal.

CORO 2º

No es tal.

VOZ 4ª

Sí es tal.

CORO 1º

Pues ¿cuál es?

VOZ 5ª

Mayor se infiere
No gozar a quien me quiere,
Cuando es el amor igual.

CORO 1º

No es tal.

VOZ 1ª

Sí es tal.

CORO 2º

Tú que ahora has respondido,
Conozco que solo has sido
Quien las penas de amor sabe.

CORO 1º

¿Cuál es la pena más grave
Que en las penas de amor cabe?

DON PEDRO

Leonor, la razón primera
De las que han cantado aquí,
Es más fuerte para mí;
Pues si bien se considera,
Es la pena más severa
Que puede dar el amor,
La carencia del favor,
Que es su término fatal.

DOÑA LEONOR

No es tal.

DON PEDRO

Sí es tal.

DOÑA ANA

Yo, hermano, de otra opinión
Soy, pues si se llega a ver,
El mayor mal viene a ser
Una celosa pasión;
Pues fuera de la razón
De que del bien se carece,
Con la envidia se padece
Otra pena más mortal.

DOÑA LEONOR

No es tal.

DOÑA ANA

Sí es tal.

DOÑA LEONOR

Aunque se halla mi sentido
Para nada, he imaginado
Que el carecer de lo amado
En amor correspondido;
Pues con juzgarse querido,
Cuando del bien se carece,
El ansia de gozar crece,
Y con ella crece el mal.

DOÑA ANA

No es tal.

DOÑA LEONOR

Sí es tal.

DON CARLOS

¡Ay, Castaño! Yo diera
Que de amor en los desvelos,

Son el mayor mal los celos,
Si a tenerlos me atreviera;
Mas pues quiere amor que muera,
Muera de sólo temerlos,
Sin llegar a padecerlos,
Pues éste es sobrado mal.

CASTAÑO

No es tal.

DON CARLOS

Sí es tal.

CASTAÑO

Señor, el mayor pesar
Con que amor nos baldona,
Es querer una fregona,
Y no tener que la dar;
Pues si llego a enamorar,
Corrido y confuso quedo,
Pues conseguirla no puedo
Por la falta de caudal.

MÚSICA

No es tal.

CASTAÑO

Sí es tal.

CELIA

El dolor más importuno
Que da amor en sus ensayos,
Es tener doce lacayos,
Sin regalarme ninguno,
Y tener perpetuo ayuno
Cuando estar harta debiera,
Esperando costurera
Los alivios del dedal.

MÚSICA

No es tal.

CELIA

Sí es tal.

This song by Sor Juana has often been compared with the best of the songs interpolated in his plays by that great master of dramaturgy and lyric poetry, Lope de Vega. And few, if any, critics are disposed to deny that even the old master rarely produced anything better.

Portinari

From Brodowski to the Library of Congress

MARIO PEDROSA

Editorial Division, Pan American Union

[Part I]

CANDIDO PORTINARI's father went to Brazil from Italy, the land of his birth, at the age of 13, and his mother, also Italian, arrived when she was five or six. After they were married, they worked as coffee pickers on the *fazendas*, or coffee plantations, near Ribeirão Preto, in the State of São Paulo. Portinari was born in 1903 on the Santa Rosa plantation; he was the second of twelve children. The nearest town was Brodowski, with 2,000 or 3,000 inhabitants, which sprang up about the time of his birth around the railroad station serving the *fazendas* in the vicinity. As regards education, Candido did not go beyond the primary grades. But he killed many birds with slings, flew kites, and often took to the woods instead of going to school. Like all the other children, he played football, using a rag-filled sock for a ball, before he had a chance to play on a real field with a leather ball. It was in this game that he broke his right leg, so that he has walked with a limp ever since.

A child of the people, his true education was received out of doors, in direct contact with the hard work that was the lot of immigrants, among the coffee trees growing in the red earth. His childhood was one of poverty, but he grew up surrounded by the warm tenderness of the Italian peasant. From those years he has retained, besides the images of his childhood, his

attachment to his home circle and love for his relatives, his sympathy for the common people and for the day laborer, a certain roughness of manner and a touch of the shrewdness native to the country folk of São Paulo.

One day a painter came to Brodowski to decorate the local church. That was a fateful day for the turbulent lad. Immediately he went to watch the work. And, in the words of the poet Manuel Bandeira, "from a bystander he became an assistant, and for the first time handled a brush."

There his art and his life work were revealed to him. Having discovered this, he was under the painful necessity of leaving his family, his dear Brodowski, and the birds, traps, and kites. At the age of 15, without money, without friends, bashful and alone, he went to Rio, to the difficult years of apprenticeship, to the inevitable failures of a beginner. He began to understand that art is no pastime, but something hard and serious; his whole life became identified with it, and he knew that his destiny was linked to the vicissitudes of the career he had decided to follow. That is why Portinari has never been a dilettante. Just as others learn the trade of the mason or marble cutter, he learned the trade of the painter. Even today, one of the most marked features of his artistic personality is precisely this artisan quality, which he has never lost.

In Rio, the young artist had to do many

Part II will deal with the four new murals in the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress.

odd jobs, including waiting on table, to keep alive. He took the competitive examination for the life class at the School of Fine Arts, but was not accepted. In 1921, when he was 18, he was admitted to a drawing class at the school and passed the examination for the painting class. In 1922, he had his first portrait accepted by the salon, but it attracted no attention. His first triumph came a year later, when a bronze medal was awarded a portrait. From then on, success came to him more frequently, although still on a modest scale. His progress, though steady through the years, was neither spectacular nor rapid. In 1924, he suffered the disappointment of having his first oil—*A Country Dance*—refused by the salon. In 1925, he received the second silver medal, in 1927 the first, and finally, in 1928, the long-desired European fellowship, won for him by his portrait of the poet Olegario Mariano. He visited France, Italy, Spain, England. In Europe he saw many people, looked at the great masters, discussed art, made plans. To the great astonishment of his friends and the professors at the School of Fine Arts, he returned to Brazil without a single canvas, but he brought back more than any painting: a fund of ideas, and his wife, Maria.

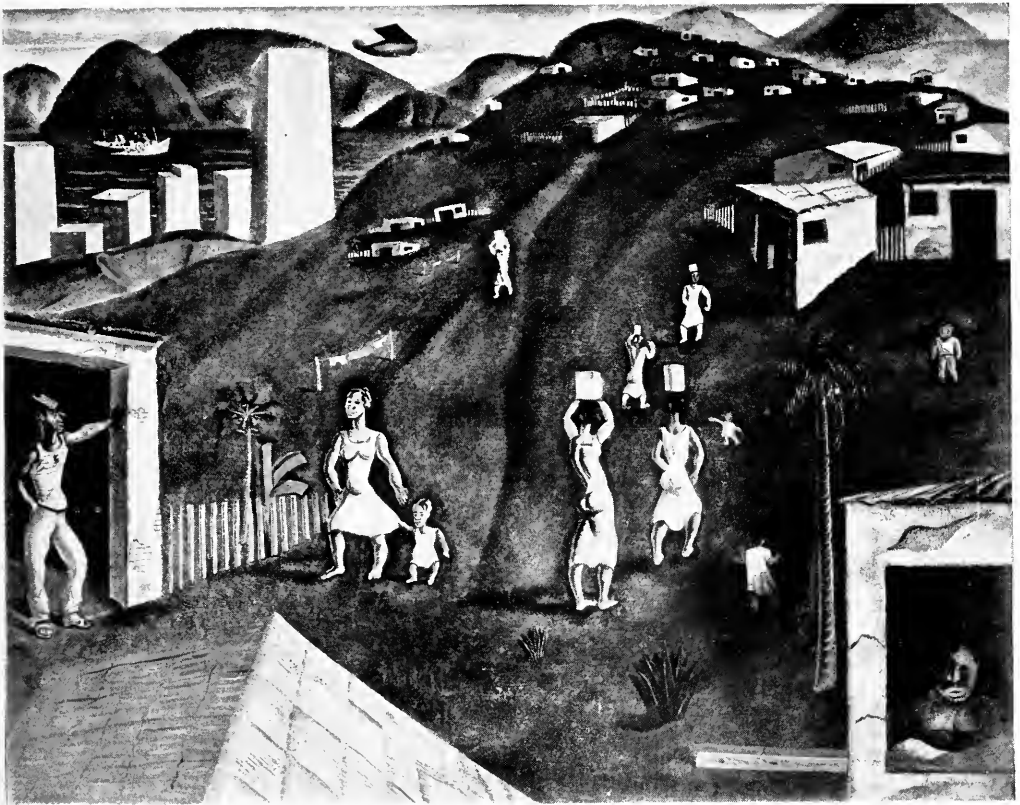
It was then that the artist's career may properly be said to have begun. What Portinari principally did in Europe was to study the European masters of the past. It was in Brazil, after his return, that he discovered so-called modernism. This is easily understood: in Europe, he was mainly occupied in studying the manner, the technique, the art of the old masters. He went through the museums with humility, to learn. He had no time to waste on aesthetic or abstract philosophical considerations. Only after he had gone back to his own country did the things he had seen begin to take shape and

order in his head. Then, instead of the museums with their countless treasures of the past and of its traditions, he had at hand only art magazines, albums of pictures, and collections of contemporary artists. Hence aesthetic problems came to the fore in abstruse discussions with literary and intellectual men, as a result of the period and his environment. Therefore, the conservative academic circles, perforce narrow, somewhat provincial, and smugly satisfied with the mission—which after all does have a certain nobility—of maintaining accepted artistic traditions against young and enthusiastic iconoclasts, had no special interest for him. This explains his contact with the literary vanguard of that period.

But do not think that Portinari aligned himself unrestrictedly with the new movements as an unthinking convert, for he never let himself be carried away by passing enthusiasms or influenced by fashions of the moment. His transition into so-called modernism, or his breaking with academic style, was a slow, sure process, which took place step by step. The proof of this lies in the fact that while he was producing new compositions of frankly cubist or constructivist tendencies, he continued to cultivate classic art, painting portraits of men and women with an austerity of form, a pictorial realism, a nobility of colors and tones worthy of the great tradition of the Renaissance masters.

From these early experiments and contacts with the new anti-naturalistic ideas came the works exhibited in 1934 in Rio and São Paulo, chiefly in the latter city, where it can truly be said that the artist received his first recognition. This was confirmed a year later, in 1935, when he won second honorable mention for his canvas *Coffee*, at the Carnegie Institute International Exhibition in Pittsburgh.

Sentimental subjects were the first to



Courtesy of Museum of Modern Art

"THE CITY HILL" (MORRO)

come from Portinari's brush, in the so-called "brown" or Brodowskian series. His canvases of those years are characterized by a vast and dominant brown surface, with the figures represented by flecks of light; by the play and uniform direction of chiaroscuro; by happy softness of color, transparency of tone. The striking poetic effect comes not only from the chiaroscuro, but also from atmospheric or cosmic elements that recall Breughel and the great Dutch landscape painters. In this series, certain colors, principally reddish brown—the "red earth" of Brodowski—as well as the overcast skies, have a certain symbolic effect. This is a sort of liberation from the past, a transfer to canvas of his childhood

memories, the life of his boyhood in Brodowski. This coincided with the so-called primitivism of the modern Brazilian poetry of the period, which was characterized by a return to the provincial sentimentalism of the lachrymose romantic poets of the nineteenth century or by insistence on naive popular subjects, as an anti-intellectual and anti-formal reaction.

The pictures of this period, springing from a subjective and almost spontaneous inspiration of boyhood memories, in which the figures are suggested merely by luminous splashes, without any great realism or any present significance, give no hint of the muralist that he was later to become. The most representative examples of this period



Courtesy of Josias Leão

"STEVEDORE" (ESTIVADOR)

are *The Circus* and *Football* (the first version, before Portinari changed the atmosphere, clarifying the background, to the detriment of the mystery and evocative force of the colors); *Wedding in Brodowski*, a water color it is interesting to compare with his *Rural Wedding*, an oil painting done in 1940; and *The City Hill*, called by its Brazilian name, *Morro*, by the Museum of Modern Art in New York, which owns it. *Morro*, however, which closes the "brown" cycle, is already more complex in composition, and the figures are more strongly individualized. This period covers 1933 and 1934, more or less.

Once he had given expression to these sentimental themes, and thus painfully achieved the affective separation from the past that was necessary to his artistic

maturity, Portinari devoted himself to new aesthetic and technical problems. He began a series of experiments in and analyses of his medium. He struggled with each problem separately; those of space and perspective, that is, of construction, tormented him. He abandoned then that happy softness of color of the "brown" series, and devoted himself intensively to analytical studies, trying to translate plastic reality by means of a geometric abstraction of planes and proportions. In this phase the plastic composition obeys only the demands of an abstract definition of form. To create mystery and construct his own world, he profited by the work of Giorgio de Chirico and his manipulation of projected and inverted shadows and metaphysical planes

of perspective. Composition was the central and transcendental problem of that period (1934-35), of which his most expressive works are *The Stevedore* (1934) and the admirable *Old-Fashioned Ice-Cream Seller* (1934).

The demands of plastic form absorbed him increasingly. To realize the substance of the pictorial material was what interested him; fleeing from academic style, he solved the problem by means of strong anti-naturalistic modeling taken principally from Picasso. In seeking massiveness of figures and objects, the painter used pigment and color not, as he had done in his Brodowskian phase, as a means to an external effect seeking to represent some emotional reaction, even a conventional or hackneyed one. His modeling then became brutally concrete, and his figures had the monumental force of statues. His principal aim was integration of composition and mass, something that he had not hitherto achieved in his anti-academic evolution. *The Negro with the Hoe*, *Mestizo*, *Mulatto* and *Indian* date from this period.

It was at this time that Portinari introduced in the modeling of his figures sensuality, an element in which his work is not very rich. The figures take up the whole foreground, bursting out of the aesthetic limits of easel painting.

What interested Portinari then was the problem of man, the reality of man and his environment. His development can be measured by the development of his treatment of space and of earth, which, from being vast, monotonous, nostalgic, primitive, submerged in shadow, became cultivated land, well defined by line and perspective, divided geometrically by the rows of coffee trees that, in a gradation of planes and of colors, stretch far to the clear and bright horizon. Portinari was no longer content with luminous splashes

with which he had indicated figures in his early "brown" series, nor was he satisfied by the plastic yet abstract types that followed (*The Old-Fashioned Ice-Cream Seller*), nor with the huge well-modeled single figures (*Mestizo*). What he wanted to portray was the man of flesh and blood, in a group or in his social sphere, at work. But in *Mulatto* and *Indian*, two imposing female figures, the artist was seeking massiveness of form. *Mestizo* and *The Negro with the Hoe* are single figures that take up the whole canvas, barely leaving room for the background, landscape in perspective crisscrossed with lines indicative of some social activity of man. While Portinari's figures are projected into the forefront of the canvas, the merging planes in the background give a broad sense of space by inverse movement. In this sense there is a profound inner lack of harmony: the structural unity found in his earlier works (*Coffee*, a small canvas earlier than the large one awarded a prize at Pittsburgh, and *The Old-Fashioned Ice-Cream Seller*) is lost. A deep-rooted dualism divides all of Portinari's work of this period. His future as an artist depended on his overcoming this dualism. The solution that he found is shown in a series of experiments made at that time in tempera—the outstanding is *The Immigrant Woman* (1935)—while he was preparing himself for mural painting.

Portinari abandoned the abstract idealism—almost transcendental in its plastic conception—that he had attained, and engaged in a struggle against his material, in his eagerness to dominate it. For this, he sought a harder medium, not as easily worked, as pliant, or as worldly as oil. This led him to research and experiments with the different techniques of tempera, fresco paintings, and others of similar type.

Portinari did not take up fresco painting by accident, as might be thought. It was

not any knowledge of the murals of Rivera or his followers in Mexico that led the Brazilian painter to the decision to attempt mural painting too, although many who do not know Portinari's work might think that his mural painting was just a late echo of the powerful Mexican movement. Not so. The inner evolution of Portinari's art itself indicates that he was faced organically, so to speak, with the problem of mural painting as his mastery of the problems of technique and of aesthetics matured. He first approached it as a problem of inner aesthetics. After the single monumental figures and his second version of *Coffee*, it was natural for him to go on to fresco painting as the next step. The powerful figure in tempera, *The Immigrant Woman*, done in 1935 after *Coffee*, of which it is a detail, shows that what Portinari was trying to achieve was monumental plastic drawing. At that time, however, the artist did not

have any real and thorough understanding of what had been or was being done in Mexico. He soon tried to obtain more exact knowledge of what had been accomplished there.

The phase of intense political activity through which Brazil was then passing brought into fashion movements and schools that tended to accentuate the social character of art and literature or stimulate social criticism. Naturally, the vogue of the Mexican school of painting was at that time very great in the intellectual circles of the country, but few people really had an accurate understanding of it. Even the better informed knew little more than the names of Rivera and Orozco. The Brazilian painter, who had by that time become a master of strong modeling, decided to study the famous Mexican mural painters, especially Diego Rivera, the best known of all. With the characteristic curiosity of a modest and conscientious craftsman, he even experimented with the famous paint spray-gun, which had been proclaimed as the last word in technique for modern so-called open air mural painting. He studied and tried everything himself, as an artisan eager to know all the processes and secrets of his trade.

However, both Mexican mural painting and the experiments of Portinari in the same genre may not only have their roots in the past but also may be purely aesthetic in origin. And this explains perfectly why, although Portinari began his mural painting after the Mexican school had developed, he was not directly influenced by it when he decided to follow the same path. As a matter of fact, in both cases the same aesthetic phenomenon occurred that had taken place earlier in the history of the development of European painting. This was a reaction against the limitations of oil painting, threatened from several



Courtesy of Josias Leão

"BAIAN WOMAN WITH CHILDREN"
(BAIANA COM MENINOS)



Courtesy of the Carnegie Institute

"COFFEE" (CAFÉ)

sides following the impressionistic movement. One such threat came from contemporaneous attempts at monumental painting, not in conjunction with architecture, but based on values or on an ideology already crystallized and without the force of general inspiration; another, from the disintegration of the aesthetics peculiar to easel painting (such as the rule of the three unities), in view of the new demands of expression.

The European artists resolved the dilemma by deciding to carry on their aesthetic revolution in easel paintings. And therefore the problem was solved by gaining depth, since they could not transfer the revolution to another domain or another genre, and after a series of analytical experiments they arrived at the abstractionism and surrealism of today. Availing themselves of the greater richness of medium and of light that had been attained by the impressionists, and of the experiments in distortion in caricature, chiefly by the great Daumier, they deliberately

destroyed the surface unity of the picture, in a retrogression to the primitive manner. To integrate the demands of plastic drawing with distortion in his aspiration for the monumental, Picasso, among others, drew upon classical antiquity for massivity of solid human form, modeling it by an anti-naturalistic process that he found in primitive Negro art.

In general it can be said that while the Mexican school utilized chiefly the elements of distortion used in caricature, taken not only from the experiments of modern European painting in this field but also from its own great national tradition (caricature in Mexico has always been one of the great expressions of popular art), what Portinari did was to utilize the plastic and massive distortion found in Picasso's drawing. This choice among the various forms of distortion—the attainment of monumentality and massiveness of form by the Brazilian artist on the one hand, and the expression of social consciousness by the Mexican mural movement, on the

other—is indicative not only of the inner force that impelled them to mural painting but also of their different aims.

The Mexican artists were unquestionably the first to profit by the new experiments resulting from the need to enlarge the field of painting in a broader sense, less limited to technical research or to the abstruse or the purely aesthetic. That is their indisputable glory. Recognizing the limitations of easel painting, they simply cast it aside and devoted themselves to fresco.

Perhaps it is not out of place to observe here, at least in passing, that only in America did the new departure in Mexico become general, characterizing the development of painting in this hemisphere, in contrast to its development in Europe. Indeed, while modern painting on this continent has not reached the profundity or the purely aesthetic transcendentalism of modern European painting as centralized

in Paris, nevertheless it is here in the American countries (especially in Mexico, the United States, and Brazil), that the most daring attempt has been made to attain a great unified art capable of restoring to subject matter its artistic dignity, which had been lost in the purely analytical phases of modern art, and capable, too, of thus reintegrating in painting, from which he had been excluded, man as a human being and as a social entity.

Differences in means, aims, traditions, and conditions were also factors in the different solutions to the problem of mural painting reached in the two countries. In Mexico this type of painting followed a deep-rooted trend that, because it became generalized and had social implications, created a real school and a national style. In Brazil, however, it did not become widely generalized, and was restricted to a phase in the evolution of a single painter. It cannot even be called a movement. To Portinari, this genre was principally a means of developing, in a larger field, the structural qualities and all the possibilities of monumental plastic drawing that he had already achieved in oils. Impelled by a genuine desire to do monumental work, he merely wanted to feel free to devote himself to experiments in plastic distortion. And he realized that to do this he also needed, if not a suitable architectural structure, at least a wall, without which this problem could not find adequate expression or a satisfactory solution. The Mexican mural movement, on the other hand, aimed principally at giving aesthetic or spiritual expression to the ideals of the Mexican revolution. It was that same social and political revolution, which began in 1910, and the political activities in which almost all of the Mexican artists, beginning with Dr. Atl and Orozco, participated, that made them aware of the necessity of leaving their studios and going



Courtesy of Josias Leão

"GIRL WITH BABY" (MENINA COM MENINO)

"RAFTS" (JANGADAS)

A mural at the New York World's Fair.



Courtesy of the artist

out into the open in search of walls to paint. Thus, faithful to the great historical tradition of fresco painting, that is, to the profound social or spiritual significance that this genre has always had, especially in the era of faith and mysticism of the Italian Primitives, the Mexicans devoted themselves, body and soul, to giving militant expression to their ardent beliefs—not exactly religious, it is true, but social and political. Often the Mexicans have sacrificed the intrinsic structural qualities of the picture to extra-pictorial interests, such as propaganda or proselytizing; the Brazilian painter never subordinated plastic expression to subject matter, which to him was already secondary.

The frescoes of the Ministry of Education in Rio de Janeiro, which constitute a conspectus of Brazilian industry, have what Mario de Andrade calls "a national functionality." Yet they are never too narrowly limited to the subject matter of each panel, and they are not intended to prove anything. Fundamentally, Portinari saw these frescoes not as a means of reproducing something real, but perhaps rather as a

means of interpreting reality. This can be deduced, for instance, from the anti-naturalistic lights and shadows of many of these murals, or the exclusively structural arbitrary distribution of light, as in some details of the *Cotton* panel, in which the light falls from opposite directions on different parts of the figures in the foreground.

It is undeniable, however, that in certain of the Ministry of Education frescoes and in some works in tempera dating from 1935 and 1936, Portinari shows here and there the influence of the fundamental mannerisms of some of Rivera's murals, especially the latter's way of attacking the subject and distributing the groups and the composition. This is to be seen principally in works like *Coffee Carriers*, *Girl with Baby* (tempera, 1936), and *Sugar Cane* (fresco in the Ministry of Education). These facts have misled a number of art critics and painters, principally in the United States, as to the chronological order of Portinari's works; they think that some dating from the earlier, pre-mural phase, like *Morro* or *The Stevedore*, for instance, are more recent than

his 1936 paintings or the frescoes in the Ministry of Education. This goes to show that Portinari's development followed a path entirely different from and independent of that of the most distinguished representatives of the Mexican school. And if to some people his Rio murals may seem colder or less original than the Mexican frescoes, with their exciting violence or their striking power of expression, nevertheless in certain other respects, such as authentic structural quality, the former frequently excel many of the Mexican frescoes.

In Portinari's frescoes the plastic qualities he sought were always present, equal to or more important than reality. He always avoided, even when making his greatest concessions to reality or to didactic ends, what he calls mere illustration. Nevertheless, his realism is profound and organic, perhaps an echo of his peasant origin. This humble and rural element, which is innate in him, is what slows his hand or weighs upon his brush—it may be preventing him from liberating himself completely or keeping him from wandering into the field of abstraction, of pure draftsmanship, unrelated to what he is representing. He was attracted to mural painting by something organic, deeply rooted, not merely by a momentary enthusiasm or a casual event. Portinari tends to seek, and will always be constantly seeking, the evanescent synthesis, dramatic in its tenuousness, between the plastic and the abstract, between the purely pictorial and life. This dualism made his earlier work dramatic, is giving the same quality to his present painting, and will continue to do so in his future work.

Through a natural law of compensation, while Portinari was covering the walls of the Ministry of Education with monumental figures, he profited by the experience he was acquiring so that, once

again at his easel, he could let himself go with a freer rhythm in his oil painting, which he never wholly abandoned. One of the most characteristic features of his new tendency was unquestionably an accentuation of his anti-naturalistic reaction. The artist seemed eager to free himself from the demands of surface unity and the rigors of almost static composition that were required by the medium in which he was then working and by the subject he was portraying. He felt oppressed, so to speak, by the demands of the titanic task that he was undertaking, by the repetition of purely national themes, and by legitimate fears of following the primrose path of conventional description, and especially of getting from the public either no reaction at all to his work, or too much reaction because of the racial and social, that is, national, legends that he was creating.

The works of this phase are characterized by a sort of escape, of flight and emancipation from the demands of a genre too closely linked to the subject matter, in other words, to the topic of external social reality. That is why, in contrast, in his new canvases and his panels for the New York World's Fair, for example, his interest in composition gives way to invention, surface unity to a lack of continuity, and realism to surrealism. The formal aims and experiments are pushed into the background, and the imaginative elements come to the fore. In this respect, it is interesting to notice the return to certain childhood themes and objects, such as scarecrows and the balloons and masts of St. John's Day celebrations, all enriched, it is true, with a new wealth of paraphernalia drawn from the life of Brazilian working people, constituting almost symbolic constants in the list of accessories found in his new paintings and his latest panels, those of the New York World's



Courtesy of Museum of Modern Art

"STUDY" (ESTUDO)

A figure for the fresco called "Cacao" in the Ministry of Education, Rio de Janeiro.



Courtesy of Museum of Modern Art

"SCARECROW" (ESPANTALHO)

Fair and now those in the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress in Washington.

This return to the so-called poetic themes of his childhood is merely a psychological footnote, and no longer has any social significance. It is rather a plunge into a well of inspiration which may be extra-pictorial but is purely individual, and measured in aesthetic terms. In search of bygone days, or better, in an escape outside of time, the artist draws on almost subconscious images for the themes of his new achievements. In his eagerness to give plastic expression to these more intuitive processes, he delimits the field of

his canvas, dividing it either into separate planes or into planes that are orderly within the limits of perspective. One of the most representative works of this period is *The Scarecrow*, now owned by the Museum of Modern Art in New York. He repeats thus the experience of European modernism. But, it should be emphasized, he subjects his new experiments to constant check by his murals, which have the role of providing solid ground for the artist as he emerges from a plunge into the purely abstract. Today, Portinari's artist soul is composed of a mixture of peasant realism and a romantic nostalgia for beautiful colors, for a beautiful blue sky. That

is why his excursions into concrete irrationality do not go very far. His present use of certain surrealistic processes (*The Scarecrow under the Stars*, 1940, among others) does not fully achieve pure automatic or irrational association. The objects do not yet function symbolically, that is, they have not become what the surrealists call "a poetic event." The purpose or functional quality of his objects, even the most irrelevant—the blue trunk, the often snake-like rope, the gourd, the scarecrows, even the ox-skulls by the roadside—is not changed in other respects or with other unforeseeable ends. In his work there is no universal and incongruous dislocation of objects. The scarecrow still stands in the midst of cattle skulls and in front of threatened furrows. They are symbols, these objects, but of another kind. They do not spring from automatic or merely irrational associations, or even from subjective association arising from purely mechanical devices (it is legitimate for the surrealist artist to make use of these). They are permanent symbols, and

they are still connected with certain sentimental or psychological constants already decided upon, and therefore realistic in a certain broader sense, susceptible of experimental generalization, according to a pre-established harmony. These are qualities of a romantic, not of an explorer of the irrational.

What Portinari has taken from surrealistic painting above all is atmospheric tonality. In common with the surrealists, however, he never has painted pure abstractions and perhaps never will paint them. For example, even in 1940, in the midst of his freest and most abstract experiments he returned not only to anecdotal painting, but also to a manner of treatment almost traditional in suggestion and significance; both are to be found in such paintings as *The Prodigal Son* and *The Last Supper*. As in the work of the surrealists, the main elements of each of his paintings are, after all, given unity by an underlying thought, which implies the existence of "subject matter," although without any specific suggestion of realism.

Why Not Learn Portuguese?

F. LAMONT PEIRCE

Assistant Editor, Foreign Commerce Weekly

"THEY speak our language"—or "They *don't* speak our language!" Grave issues often rest on the sharp prongs of these alternatives. As foreign traders in particular know, one or the other may spell the difference between achieved success and frustration's sting.

Ability to speak and read the language of a given people may well mean warm friendships, satisfying concord, consummation of mutual benefits, and paths made smooth for progress. Such ability means generally that you as an individual will find yourself *simpático*—to use that fine, expressive word of the Ibero-Americans.

But the converse will probably have the opposite effect. Unfamiliarity with a people's language is likely to mean snags, entanglements, discomfiture.

These thoughts, of course, are truisms, but a growing realization of them, by the general public as well as by the foreign-trading community, lies at the very root of this nation's mounting keenness for foreign-language study. It should certainly be the basis of our immediate and future attitude toward Portuguese.

Portuguese spoken in many regions of the earth

Portuguese is truly important in the modern world. It is the official language of great regions whose population today is in excess of 50,000,000. It is the language of the largest Republic in Latin America—the language, too, of a Euro-

pean nation that is peculiarly significant and strategic at this moment, its possessions ranking third or fourth among the world's empires, with territories stretching across the map from the war-lashed South Seas to West Africa's hill-country and from Mozambique's bazaars to "India's coral strand." Production, business, trade, are active in every area of this Portuguese-speaking world.

Yet evidence points to the fact that the study of the Portuguese language here in the United States is lagging. Such study is, one may safely say, in no way commensurate with the actual or potential value of a mastery of this tongue.

"Just why should one study Portuguese?" you may ask. Well, the answer is assuredly not hard to find. Maybe you aspire to sell (now or in the future) clothing or toiletries or office equipment to the stores of Rio de Janeiro or Baía. Possibly you have a commercial or diplomatic mission that will take you, by clipper, over the Tagus estuary and down to Lisbon's airport, past the time-weathered buildings and colorful mosaics of the Portuguese metropolis. Conceivably, you may be concerned in a palm-oil deal that will mean a visit to the forests, the heat, huts, and fetishes of semi-primitive Angola.

Or are you in a service (shipping, commercial, or other) that may take you to the roadstead of Horta, in the much-publicized Azores? Will you, in days to come, be interested in some product of Madeira,

island famous for wine, handicrafts, honeymoons, and magnificent jagged crags? Have you perhaps been assigned to a supervisory job on a promising rubber development in the vast Amazon Basin?

In any one of these cases, you will unquestionably be greatly aided by some knowledge of Portuguese, the language that is spoken, written, read, in every one of the regions mentioned. In fact, without that knowledge, you will be definitely handicapped. And you will almost certainly find, if the experience of others is a dependable index, that the study of this language, far from being at all onerous, is its own ample reward.

Portuguese—not Spanish—is the language of potent, progressive, and richly endowed Brazil, which in area and population represents almost half of South America. "Its mineral production has multiplied eight times in the last decade. Its industrial capacity has tripled during this period. Its textile output has increased threefold. Its agricultural production is tremendous," says a recent article,¹ which calls Brazil the "Arsenal of Strategic Materials." It is hoped that rubber will be extracted in increasing quantities from the habitat of the rubber tree in the Amazon basin. Manganese, mica and bauxite (an aluminum ore) are three other strategic materials that Brazil has in potentially great quantities. A mountain of solid iron ore of the highest quality, copper, chrome, quartz crystals and industrial diamonds are but a few of its other mineral resources, and its vegetable oils and fibers can supply deficiencies caused by the interruption of trade with the Far East. These facts alone should, it would seem, stimulate powerfully the study of Portuguese in the United States.

¹ In "Foreign Commerce Weekly," United States Department of Commerce, February 21, 1942.

Today, in this country, there is quite obviously a strong "hemisphere-language" enthusiasm—a good-neighborly language fervor, commendable in the eyes of businessmen and governments as well as of scholars and booksellers. Spanish is getting a really tremendous amount of attention—most deservedly, because it is an inherently splendid as well as a widely diffused language exceedingly useful in business. But Portuguese, unfortunately, is the object of much scantier interest. The respective percentages of students of these two languages are out of all proportion to the essential importance of the subjects.

This arresting fact calls for a bit of examination, in the interest of our foreign business, as well as from other standpoints. While viewing with fullest favor the movement toward Spanish, the well-informed observer feels impelled to put in a strong plea for a much wider study of the Portuguese language.

What are the reasons for the disproportion that has just been mentioned? There are several, but one in particular seems worthy of being scrutinized. This must be squarely faced and discussed with perfect candor; nothing that follows here should be construed in any sense as an "invidious comparison" of the languages concerned.

To put the situation frankly: A regrettable impression seems to prevail that Portuguese is, after all, just a "variant" of Spanish, and that a person who knows Spanish will be able to "get along" in a Portuguese-speaking country, either using his Spanish intact or employing it as a means with which to tackle blithely the "slight" problems of Portuguese.

This will make any admirer of Portuguese wince—but such an impression undoubtedly prevails in many circles.

Spanish will not serve in Portuguese-speaking countries

This belief happens to be essentially untrue. One can *not* readily "get by" with Spanish in Brazil. One will merely succeed, often, in seeming a bit absurd—to the accompaniment of varied embarrassments and defeats. If a person knows Spanish well, he *may* be able to read disconnected phrases in Portuguese (with the aid of quick, crude guesses), but, even in attempting to read, he will run into many stumbling blocks. There will be an abundance of words that he just *won't know*. His spoken Spanish, for the most part, will be incomprehensible to Brazilians or imperfectly understood by them. He will be able to understand little.

And if he tries to pronounce Portuguese according to the rules that he acquired for Spanish, the result will be—well, "futile" and "confused" seem as moderate terms as any.

No, Spanish will not serve where Portuguese is required. The languages are too different. Over the many long centuries, the original Latin (or occasionally Arabic) words and syllables have undergone too diverse changes, in the distinct nations of Spain and Portugal.

In innumerable instances, although to a lesser degree in Brazil than in Portugal, *s* in Portuguese has the sound of *sh* or *zh*, a thing unknown in Spanish. Spanish *l* after a consonant is frequently *r* in Portuguese (*doble, dôbro*, double). Many Portuguese words appear truncated when compared with Spanish; for example, Portuguese *pá* (shovel) is *pala* in Spanish. If the letter *l* or *n* occurs between vowels in Spanish, it often disappears in the Portuguese cognate: *general, generales* in Spanish are *geral, gerais* in Portuguese.

It may be of interest to compare just a few words for common concepts in the two languages. For an ordinary bowl used on

the table, the Portuguese word is *tijela*, the Spanish word *escudilla* or *tazón*. The Spanish word for Tuesday is *martes*, the Portuguese *terça-feira*. The Spanish for glove is *guante*, the Portuguese *luva*. The Portuguese for dinner is *jantar*, the Spanish *comida*. Further examples seem needless. Both are rich languages, but identity between them is definitely lacking.

As to the question whether a good knowledge of Spanish could ever conceivably obviate the need for knowing Portuguese in a Portuguese-speaking country, we may take the testimony of an experienced United States businessman. The present writer well remembers sitting, a number of years ago, at an open-air café on the Avenida da Liberdade in Lisbon, Portugal. His table-companion was an American, a buyer of raw material for one of the largest United States manufacturers of floor coverings, who had just come up to Lisbon from Andalusia, in Spain, where he was accustomed to spend a considerable proportion of his time. This buyer had a thoroughly good command of the Spanish language, because this was necessitated by the demands of his business dealings.

But, as the shadows of the August evening grew deeper over the array of impressive buildings in Portugal's capital, he made the frank admission: "Do you know, I can't understand a *sentence* of spoken Portuguese!" In Portugal (in the cases where his "contact" did not speak French or Spanish) he conversed through interpreters. He candidly confessed his bafflement at the many wholly unfamiliar words, the distinctive pronunciation, the sound-suppressions and elisions (as they seemed to him) of the ancient language of the Lusitanians.

Generous courtesy is a primary characteristic of Brazilians but, when they are addressed in a language that is *not their own*, a reaction of annoyance or even re-

sentiment is readily understandable. They have their own language, which they love and admire—most justly—and they don't like to feel that other peoples don't know about it (to say nothing of making no rational effort to master it).

If a manufacturer in the United States thoughtlessly sends to a Brazilian a letter in Spanish, a tongue foreign to both of them, could the recipient be expected to be as favorably impressed as by one that was adroitly couched in correct, idiomatic, considerate Portuguese? How would a Czechoslovak merchant in pre-war Prague have felt if he had received a sales communication from France in Polish (a Slavic language, to be sure, but one quite strange to him)?

Portuguese will indubitably be useful to the United States business man in Brazil. It will be useful for him to know that *empreiteiro* means a contractor, that *aceite* is acceptance, that *conhecimento* is a bill of lading, and if he meets the word *falência* he will know that a bankruptcy is involved (and he will hope he seldom sees the word). He will know, too, that he is familiarizing himself with a language that has many attractive aspects, aside from commerce.

But every traveler is not a business man. Prior to last December fine ships carried to Brazil many Americans on pleasure bent. After the war they will do so again, for Rio's magnificent harbor and the many beauties of the Brazilian capital will prove an especially powerful magnet to those who have become aware of the resources and attractions of a nation larger than the continental United States and its friend for more than a century and a quarter. The traveler who has no knowledge of Portuguese can enjoy the sights in Rio or other large cities, and that cosmopolite the waiter will see that he is adequately fed. The kind and courteous Brazilians, very probably speaking English and thus

putting him to shame, will rescue him if he loses his way, but he will miss awakening the response that comes to one who has made an effort to meet his hosts on their own ground, and it is not likely that the little everyday human contacts that are often so delightful and heart-warming will be among his memories of Brazil. "Americans have lost a great deal of pleasure out of life, if nothing else, by being so stubbornly a monolingualistic people," justly remarks Clarissa Rolfs.

Pungent, vivid sayings

Fascinating to any person with a feeling for languages, to anyone sensitive to the variations of national thought and temperament, are the proverbs, the "old sayings," encountered in the different tongues. Portuguese is exceedingly rich in such sayings, sometimes approaching our own English method of expression or, again, tackling the thought in a radically original and highly graphic way. The earnest but cheerful faith of the Portuguese is voiced, for example, in such a proverb as *Dá Deus o frio conforme à roupa* ("God sends the cold to conform with the clothing"), a variant of our own saying about tempering the wind to the shorn lamb. Where we in the United States announce a determination to persevere "through thick and thin," Brazilians would be apt to say *por paus e por pedras* — "through wood and through stones."

And speaking of stones, we have an old, picturesque phrase, "to kill two birds with one stone," an idea that is expressed a bit differently by the Portuguese-speaking Brazilians, who say *matar dois coelhos de uma cajadada*—"to kill two rabbits with one blow of a shepherd's crook." When we want to convey the idea that a youngster has inherited the qualities of his father, we are likely to remark that he's a chip off the old block, but if you were speaking Portu-

guese you might put across the same thought in an equally vivid way by uttering the terse comment: *Filho de peixe sabe nadar*—"A fish's son knows how to swim!"

And, merely in passing, one is tempted to note such intriguing, wholly appropriate Portuguese terms as "house of the button" (*casa de botão*), for our "buttonhole"—and "sky of the mouth" (*céu da boca*) for what we prefer to call the "roof" of that vital orifice. If we want to indicate exceptionally close cooperation between individuals, we may say, "They're hand in glove," or hold up two entwined fingers and remark, "They're just like that" (or we may exclaim, "They're thick as thieves!" if we aim to be biting), but the Brazilians have a different phrase; they say, *São unha e carne* ("They are fingernail and flesh")—a rather neat way of putting it.

Excellent reading in Portuguese

Business men today, especially in the international field, usually have wide-ranging cultural interests, and the question is apt to arise: What kind of good reading is available in Portuguese, other than security prices, market reports, and reviews of economic conditions? There is, of course, an ample and highly varied literature in both Brazil and Portugal. In the mother country, one need not go back to the thrilling epic of Camoens' *Lusiads*; Portugal can boast a recent writer of fiction, Eça de Queiroz, who ranks with the most incisive and engrossing of modern authors. He knew the United States, and occasionally had some mordant things to say about us; in his letters, where he comments on our great business capital, one meets such phrases as "proud-spirited New York" (*orgulhosa* is the word he uses) and critical remarks, such as "Civilization does not consist merely in having a machine for everything." His style has a

briskness, a crispness of approach, that embodies something of the essence of the keen American business drive. Eça's books have wit, color, change of pace, imaginative brilliance, and abounding picturesqueness.

Brazil has produced such genuinely distinguished novelists as Machado de Assis and Graça Aranha, whose works afford a penetrating insight into Brazilian life and character. Another notable author is Euclides da Cunha, whose chief work, *Os Sertões*—one of the great monuments of the Portuguese language—first revealed to Brazilians themselves the unknown interior of their country, where the wilderness for which the book is named offers full scope to the energies of the pioneer. Do you like the vigorous books of our Ernest Hemingway? If you do, and if you know Portuguese, you may find much the same qualities in the contemporary Brazilian Jorge Amado, one of the "Northern School" of writers who find their themes mainly in social realism.

If one wishes to know the old northeastern Brazil, so similar in its origin and structure to our "Deep South," the sociological works of Gilberto Freyre, especially *Casa Grande e Senzala* (*Big House and Slave Quarters*), are indispensable. In the same category are the novels of José Lins do Rego, in particular the Sugar Cane Cycle, in whose pages he traces with great vividness and psychological penetration the decadence of the patriarchal families of that region and the evolution of its customs.

Business men who realize that the path to profit lies through a thorough understanding of the peoples with whom they deal could undoubtedly obtain much definitely useful data from the realistic social-science works of such Brazilians as Carlos Delgado de Carvalho and Pontes de Miranda, the jurist.

Portuguese has flexibility, pungency, and strength. It possesses an inherent interest, even apart from utilitarian ends. But its practical usefulness is great, today more than ever before. Knowledge of the Portuguese language is a *key*—a key to business success in one of the greatest of

republics and in a globe-girdling empire, a key to cordial, harmonious, and rewarding relationships of many sorts, a key to some of the vital aspects of Western Hemisphere solidarity.

Does it not seem well worth while to acquire a working knowledge of it?



Courtesy of Pan American Airways

A SQUARE IN RIO DE JANEIRO

STATUS OF THE PAN AMERICAN TREATIES AND CONVENTIONS

(Revised to January 1, 1942, by the Juridical Division of the Pan American Union)

PRIMEIRA CONFERENCIA - FIRST CONFERENCE - PRIMEIRA CONFERENCIA (Washington, 1889-90) No se firmaron Tratados o Convenciones. No Treaties or Conventions signed. Nao se firmaram Tratados ou Convenções.															
SEGUNDA CONFERENCIA - SECOND CONFERENCE - SEGUNDA CONFERENCIA (Mexico, 1901-02)															
1. Daños Pecuniarios (En vigor 5 años) Reclamaciones (En vigor 5 años) Reclamaciones Pecuniarias (En vigor 5 años)	ARGENTINA														
	BOLIVIA	S	S	NS	S										
	BRAZIL														
	COLUMBIA														
	COSTA RICA														
	CUBA														
	CHILE														
	ECUADOR														
	EL SALVADOR														
	ESTADOS UNIDOS														
2. Extradition Extradición Exercício de Profissões Liberais Exercício de Profissões Liberais Exercício de Profissões Liberais	ARGENTINA														
	BOLIVIA	S	S	NS	S										
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	COLUMBIA														
	COSTA RICA														
	CUBA														
	CHILE														
	ECUADOR														
	EL SALVADOR														
	ESTADOS UNIDOS														
3. Formation of Codes of International Law Organización de Códigos sobre o Direito Internacional Protección de Obras Literarias y Artísticas Protection of Literary and Artistic Copyrights Protección de Obras Literarias y Artísticas	ARGENTINA														
	BOLIVIA	S	S	NS	S										
	BRAZIL														
	COLUMBIA														
	COSTA RICA														
	CUBA														
	CHILE														
	ECUADOR														
	EL SALVADOR														
	ESTADOS UNIDOS														
4. Exchange of Publications Permuta de Publicaciones Patentes, Dibujos y Modelos Industriales Patents, Industrial Drawings and Models and Trade Marks Patentes, Dibujos y Modelos Industriales	ARGENTINA														
	BOLIVIA	S	S	NS	S										
	BRAZIL														
	COLUMBIA														
	COSTA RICA														
	CUBA														
	CHILE														
	ECUADOR														
	EL SALVADOR														
	ESTADOS UNIDOS														
5. Rights of Aliens Direitos de Estrangeiros Arbitraje Obligatorio Obligatory Arbitration Apoitramento Compulsorio	ARGENTINA														
	BOLIVIA	S	S	NS	S										
	BRAZIL														
	COLUMBIA														
	COSTA RICA														
	CUBA														
	CHILE														
	ECUADOR														
	EL SALVADOR														
	ESTADOS UNIDOS														
TERCERA CONFERENCIA - THIRD CONFERENCE - TERCEIRA CONFERENCIA (Rio de Janeiro, 1906)															
6. Condition of Citizens Naturalized Condición de Ciudadanos Naturalizados Condición de Ciudadanos Naturalizados	ARGENTINA														
	BOLIVIA	S	S	NS	S										
	BRAZIL														
	COLUMBIA														
	COSTA RICA														
	CUBA														
	CHILE														
	ECUADOR														
	EL SALVADOR														
	ESTADOS UNIDOS														
7. Patentes, Marks, Propriety of Literary and Artistic Property Patentes, Marcas, Propiedad Literaria y Artística Patentes, Marcas, Propiedad Literaria y Artística	ARGENTINA														
	BOLIVIA	S	S	NS	S										
	BRAZIL														
	COLUMBIA														
	COSTA RICA														
	CUBA														
	CHILE														
	ECUADOR														
	EL SALVADOR														
	ESTADOS UNIDOS														
8. International Law (Codification) Derecho Internacional (Codificación) Direito Internacional (Codificação)	ARGENTINA														
	BOLIVIA	S	S	NS	S										
	BRAZIL														
	COLUMBIA														
	COSTA RICA														
	CUBA														
	CHILE														
	ECUADOR														
	EL SALVADOR														
	ESTADOS UNIDOS														
9. International Law (Codification) Derecho Internacional (Codificación) Direito Internacional (Codificação)	ARGENTINA														
	BOLIVIA	S	S	NS	S										
	BRAZIL														
	COLUMBIA														
	COSTA RICA														
	CUBA														
	CHILE														
	ECUADOR														
	EL SALVADOR														
	ESTADOS UNIDOS														

SYMBOLS: A—Adherence subject to ratification. S—Signatory. R—Ratified. D—Denounced. NS—Non-signatory. d—Ratification deposited. r—Reservations.

SEPTIMA CONFERENCIA - SEVENTH CONFERENCE - SETIMA CONFERENCIA (Montevideo, 1933)		ARGENTINA	BOLIVIA	BRASIL	COLOMBIA	COSTA RICA	CUBA	CHILE	ECUADOR	EL SALVADOR	U. S. A. de A.	GUATEMALA	HAITI	HONDURAS	MEXICO	NICARAGUA	PANAMA	PARAGUAY	PERU	S. REP. DOM.	URUGUAY	VENEZUELA
33. Nacionalidad de la Mujer Nationality of Women		S	S	Rd	Rd	NS	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	R	Rd	S	S	S	S	
34. Nacionalidade da Mulher Nationality of Woman		NS	NS	ARdr	NS	NS	NS	Rd	Rd	NS	NS	NS	NS	Rd	Rd	NS	Rd	NS	NS	NS	S	
35. Extradición Extradition		S	NS	S	Rd	NS	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	R	Rd	S	S	Rd	S	
36. Cláusula Opcional anexo a la Convención sobre Extradición Optional Clause annexed to the Convention on Extradition		S	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	S	
37. Asilo Político Political Asylum		S	NS	Rd	Rd	NS	S	Rd	S	Rd	NS	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	R	Rd	S	S	Rd	S	
38. Revisión de Textos de Historia Revision of History Textbooks		S	S	S	Rd	NS	S	S	Rd	S	NS	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	R	Rd	S	S	Rd	S	
39. Additional Protocol to the Conciliation Convention (1929) Protocolo Adicional a la Convención de Conciliación (1929)		NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS	Rd	R	NS	Rd	ARd	R	Rd	Rd	R	A	ARd	NS	Rd	S	ARdr
40. Derechos y Deberes de los Estados Rights and Duties of States		S	NS	Rd	Rd	ARd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	St	Rd	S	Rd
OCTAVA CONFERENCIA - EIGHTH CONFERENCE - OITAVA CONFERENCIA (Lima 1938) No se firmaron Tratados o Convenciones. No Treaty or Conventions signed. Não se firmaram Tratados ou Convenções.		ARGENTINA	BOLIVIA	BRASIL	COLOMBIA	COSTA RICA	CUBA	CHILE	ECUADOR	EL SALVADOR	ESTADOS UNIDOS	GUATEMALA	HAITI	HONDURAS	MEXICO	NICARAGUA	PANAMA	PARAGUAY	PERU	REP. DOMINICANA	URUGUAY	VENEZUELA
CONFERENCIA DE CONSOLIDACION DE LA PAZ CONFERENCE FOR THE MAINTENANCE OF PEACE CONFERENCIA DE CONSOLIDAÇÃO DA PAZ		S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd
41. Mantenimiento, Arreglo y Reestablecimiento de la Paz Maintenance, Preservation and Reestablishment of Peace		S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd
42. Protocolo Relativo a No-Intervención Protocol Relative to Non-Intervention		S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	S	Rd
43. Prevención de Controversias Prevention of Controversies		S	S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	St	Rd	S	S
44. Good Offices and Mediation Buenos Oficios e Mediación		S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	S	S
45. Cumplimiento de los Tratados Existentes Fulfillment of the Existing Treaties		St	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	S	S
46. Carretera Panamericana Pan American Highway		S	S	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	S	S
47. Fomento de las Relaciones Culturales Interamericanas Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations		S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd
48. Intercambio de Publicaciones Exchange of Publications		S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd
49. Artistic Exhibitions Facilidades a Exposiciones Artísticas		S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd
50. Fomento de la Orientación de la Juventud Orientation of the Youth		S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	Rd	NS	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	S	Rd
51. Facilidades para la Educación o la Propaganda Facilities for Education or Propaganda		S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	Rd	NS	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	S	Rd

CONVENÇÕES SUSCITAS EN OTRAS CONFERENCIAS PANAMERICANAS CONVENTIONS SIGNED AT OTHER PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES CONVENÇÕES ASSINADAS EM OUTRAS CONFERENCIAS PANAMERICANAS		ARGENTINA	BOLIVIA	BRASIL	COLOMBIA	COSTA RICA	CUBA	CHILE	ECUADOR	U. S. A. de A.	GUATEMALA	HAITI	HONDURAS	MEXICO	Nicaragua	PARAGUAY	PERU	REP. DOM.	URUGUAY	VENEZUELA
52. Conciliación Interamericana (Washington, 1929)		NS	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd
53. Inter-American Conciliation Comisión Interamericana (Washington, 1929)		NS	Sr	Rd	Rd	Sr	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd
54. Arbitramento Inter-Americano (Washington, 1929)		NS	S	S	S	S	R	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	Rd	S	Rd
55. Arbitraje Progresivo - Protocolo de Ginebra (Washington, 1929)		Rd	AR	Rd	ARd	A	ARd	Rd	ARd	ARd	ARd	ARd	ARd	ARd	ARd	ARd	ARd	ARd	ARd	ARd
56. Pacto Antifascista (Rio de Janeiro, 1933) (1)		NS	S	S	Rd	S	Rd	S	S	NS	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	S	S
57. Protocolo Marcaría y Comercial (Washington, 1929)		NS	S	S	Rd	S	Rd	S	S	NS	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	S	S
58. Trade Mark of Marcaría y Comercial (Washington, 1929)		NS	S	S	S	S	Rd	NS	S	NS	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	NS	S
59. Registro de Marcas - Protocolo (Washington, 1929)		NS	S	S	S	S	Rd	NS	S	NS	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	NS	S
60. Registro de Marcas - Protocolo (Washington, 1929)		NS	S	S	S	S	Rd	NS	S	NS	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	S	NS	S
61. Comunicaciones Internas (Mexico, 1924)		S	NS	S	S	S	S	NS	S	NS	S	NS	NS	NS	Rd	S	Rd	S	NS	S
62. Comunicaciones Eléctricas (Havana, 1924)		Rd	ARd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd
63. Código Sanitario (Lima, 1927)		Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	S	ARd	Rd	NS	Rd	S	S	ARd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd
64. Protocolo Adicional al Código Sanitario (Washington, 1930)		S	S	S	S	S	NS	S	Rd	S	S	NS	Rd	Rd	S	S	Rd	Rd	S	S
65. Regulation of Automotive Traffic (Washington, 1930)		S	S	S	S	S	NS	S	Rd	S	S	NS	Rd	Rd	S	S	Rd	Rd	S	S
66. Reglamento de Tráfico Automotor (Washington, 1930)		S	S	S	S	S	NS	S	Rd	S	S	NS	Rd	Rd	S	S	Rd	Rd	S	S
67. Most-favored-nation clause in commercial treaties (Washington, 1934)		S	S	S	S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	Rd	Rd	S	S
68. Cláusula de nación más favorecida en tratados de comercio -- (3)		S	S	S	S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	Rd	Rd	S	S
69. Instituciones Artísticas y Monumentos Históricos - Pacto Roerich (Washington, 1935)		S	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd	S	Rd
70. Monumentos Históricos - Pacto Roerich (Washington, 1935)		S	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd	S	Rd
71. Movable Property of Historic Value (Washington, 1935)		S	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd	S	Rd
72. Bens Movable de Valor Histórico (Washington, 1935)		S	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd	S	Rd
73. Declaración sobre Usurpaciones (Washington, 1936)		S	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd	S	Rd
74. Declaration Relative to Foreign Companies (Washington, 1936)		S	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd	S	Rd
75. Repression of Smuggling (Buenos Aires, 1935)		S	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd	S	Rd
76. Repressão do Contrabando (Buenos Aires, 1935)		S	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	Rd	S	Rd
77. Transporte de Turismo y Países por Vehículos (Buenos Aires, 1935)		S	S	S	S	S	NS	S	S	NS	S	S	S	S	S	S	Rd	S	S	Rd
78. Transport for Tourism and Countries by Vehicles (Buenos Aires, 1935)		S	S	S	S	S	NS	S	S	NS	S	S	S	S	S	S	Rd	S	S	Rd
79. Tránsito de Aviones (Buenos Aires, 1935)		S	S	S	S	S	Rd	Rd	S	S	S	S	S	Rd	S	S	S	S	S	Rd
80. Unas aeronaves en Comercio (Buenos Aires, 1935)		S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	Rd
81. Junta Panamericana de Comercio (Buenos Aires, 1935)		S	S	R	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	Rd

SYMBOLS: A—Adherence subject to ratification. S—Signatory. R—Ratified. D—Denounced. NS—Non-signatory. d—Ratification deposited. r—Reservations.
 (1) Ar—Greece, Italy, Norway; AR—Portugal; ARd—Turkey; ARd—Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Finland, Roumania, Yugoslavia. (2) Abandons the first two reservations made when signing the Treaty. (3) Rd—Greece; S—Economic Union of Belgium and Luxembourg.

CONVENCIONES SUSCRITAS EN OTRAS CONFERENCIAS PANAMERICANAS
CONVENTIONS SIGNED AT OTHER PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES
CONVENÇÕES ASSIGNADAS EM OUTRAS CONFERENCIAS PANAMERICANAS

(Cont.)

(Cont.)

	ARGENTINA	BOLIVIA	BRASIL	COLOMBIA	COSTA RICA	CUBA	CHILE	EQUADOR	EL SALVADOR	ESTADOS UNIDOS	GUATEMALA	HAITI	HONDURAS	MEXICO	NICARAGUA	PANAMA	PARAGUAY	PERU	REP. DOMINICANA	URUGUAY	VENEZUELA	CANADA
CONVENIOS SIGNIFICATIVOS EN OTRAS CONFERENCIAS PANAMERICANAS SIGNIFICATIVE AGREEMENTS IN OTHER PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCE CONVENIENTES ASSIGNADOS EM OUTRAS CONFERENCIAS PANAMERICANAS	(Cont.)																					
70. Protocolo sobre Poderes <u>Protocolo sobre Potestades</u> <u>Acuerdo Interamericano</u> <u>Inter-American Agreement</u> <u>Banco Interamericano</u> (Washington, 1940)	-- (1)	Sr	S	Sr					Rdr	S					S	S					Rdr	
71. Convención sobre Colonias y Posesiones Europeas <u>Convention on European Colonies and Possessions</u> <u>Convencão sobre Colônias e Possessões Europeias</u> <u>Akkoord over Koloniën en Bezittingen van Europa</u> (Washington, 1940)		S	S	S				S		S				R	S		S		S			
72. Convención sobre Colonias y Posesiones Europeas <u>Convention on European Colonies and Possessions</u> <u>Convencão sobre Colônias e Possessões Europeias</u> <u>Akkoord over Koloniën en Bezittingen van Europa</u> (Washington, 1940)	Pdr	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	S	Sr	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	R	S	S	Rd	S	Rd	Rd	S	Rd	
73. Natur, Protección and Wild Life Protection <u>Nature, Fauna and Bolezas Animales</u> <u>Natura, Fauna e Bolezas Animais</u> <u>Natuur, Fauna en Dierwereldbescherming</u> (Washington, 1940)	Sr	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	Rd	Rd	Rd	S						S	R	S	Rd	
74. Inter-American Coffee Agreement <u>Inter-American Coffee Agreement</u> <u>Acuerdo Interamericano de Café</u> <u>Convênio Interamericano do Café</u> (Washington, 1940)		Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd		Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd	Rd			Rd	Rd		Rd	
75. Protocolo to the Inter-American Coffee Agreement (Washington, 1941) <u>Protocolo al Convenio Interamericano de Café</u> <u>Protocolo ao Convênio Interamericano do Café</u> (Mexico, 1940)		S	S	S	S	S		S	S	S	S	S	S	S	S	A	A	S			S	
76. Inter-American Indian Institute <u>Inter-American Indian Institute</u> <u>Instituto Indigenista Interamericano</u> (Mexico, 1940)		S			S	R		R	Rd	Rd			Rd	Rd	A	A	A	S				
77. Radiocomunicaciones Convention <u>Radiocommunications Convention</u> <u>Convenção de Rádio-Comunicações</u> (Havana, 1937)			Rdr	A	Rd	A			Rd	Rd	A	Rd	Rd	Rd	R	Rd	A	A	Rd	A	A	Rd
78. Arrangement Concerning Radiocommunications <u>Arrangement Concerning Radiocommunications</u> <u>Acordo Sul Americano Regional de Rádio-Comunicações</u> (Havana, 1937)		Rdr	A		A				Rd	Rd	A	Rd	A	Rd	R	Rd	A	Rd	Rd	A	A	Rd
79. North American Convention on Radio Broadcasting <u>North American Convention on Radio Broadcasting</u> <u>Convención Norteamericana de Radio-difusión</u> (Havana, 1937)						Rd				Rd				Rd				Rd	Rd		Rd	
80. Convención Regional de Radio <u>Regional Radio Convention</u> <u>Acordo Sudamericano de Rádio-Comunicações</u> (Guatemala, 1936)					S			S	S	Rd ³	Rd	R		Rd	Rd	S						
81. South American Regional Agreement on Radiocommunications <u>South American Regional Agreement on Radiocommunications</u> <u>Acordo Sul Americano Regional de Rádio-Comunicações</u> (Buenos Aires, 1935)		Rd	Rd				Rd										Rd					
82. Acuerdo Sudamericano de Radiocomunicaciones <u>Sudamerican Agreement on Radiocommunications</u> <u>Acordo Sul Americano Regional de Rádio-Comunicações</u> (Buenos Aires, 1935)																						
Revisión de Río de Janeiro - Rio de Janeiro Revision <u>Revisão do Rio de Janeiro</u> (Rio de Janeiro, 1940)		S	S	Rd	S		S										S	Rd		S	S	
83. Acuerdo Sudamericano de Radiocomunicaciones <u>Sudamerican Agreement on Radiocommunications</u> <u>Acordo Sul Americano Regional de Rádio-Comunicações</u> (Buenos Aires, 1935)		S	S	S			S															
Revisión de Santiago - Santiago Revision <u>Revisão de Santiago</u> (Santiago, 1940)		S	S	S													S		S		S	
84. Arrangement concerning Radiocommunications <u>Arrangement concerning Radiocommunications</u> <u>Acordo Sul Americano Regional de Rádio-Comunicações</u> (Havana - 1937)		S	S	S	NS	S	S	S	Rd	Rd	S	NS	S	S	S	NS	S	S	S	S	S	

The Americas and the War

To keep the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it was attempted to make this first installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it

is inevitable that some measures should have been omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

The list will be continued in subsequent issues of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART I.

ARGENTINA ¹

1. December 9, 1941. Presidential Decree stating the position of Argentina in relation to the war, and declaring that the United States will not be considered as having belligerent status in the conflict. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)
2. December 10, 1941. Temporary suspension by the Treasury of all transfers, direct or indirect, of funds between Japan and Argentina. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, December 11, 1941.)
3. December 13, 1941. Presidential Decree reaffirming Argentina's position with respect to the United States, after war had been declared on that country by Germany and Italy. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, December 14, 1941.)
4. December 16, 1941. Presidential Decree declaring a state of siege throughout the Republic, for an unspecified period. (*Boletín Oficial*, December 26, 1941.)

¹ The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *El Registro*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

5. February 4, 1942. Military measures adopted to safeguard Argentine territory announced by Acting President Castillo: keeping under arms the class of 1921 until the end of 1942, and recalling to the colors noncommissioned officers of the classes of 1918 and 1919. (*New York Times*, February 5, 1942.)

BOLIVIA

1. January 28, 1942. Executive decree severing diplomatic relations with the Axis powers. (*El Diario*, La Paz, January 29, 1942.)

BRAZIL

1. December 9, 1941. Decree-law No. 3911 adopting measures for the protection and financial security of legitimate foreign interests in the present emergency. (*Diário Oficial*, December 9, 1941.)
2. December 11, 1941. Decree-law No. 3930 creating six infantry guard companies in the Brazilian Air Force for the guarding and immediate defense of air bases, air fields, landing fields, and aviation establishments. (*Diário Oficial*, December 13, 1941.)
3. December 16, 1941. Decree-law No. 3938 authorizing the Bank of Brazil to guarantee purchase payments by the Lloyd Brasileiro for Italian ships taken over by Brazil. (*Diário Oficial*, December 16, 1941.)

4. January 12, 1942. Decree-law authorizing the Minister of Aeronautics to requisition all air transport matériel, equipment, and buildings that are necessary for the military defense of Brazil. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, January 13, 1942.)

5. January 17, 1942. Decree declaring that, in the case of certain specified civil industrial plants in various parts of the country the position of technical administrator is of interest to the Army. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, January 18, 1942.)

6. January 18, 1942. Instructions issued by the Director of Posts and Telegraphs, placing restrictions on messages sent by telegraph and radio. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, January 19 and 20, 1942.)

7. January 27, 1942. Decree-law declaring that for advance payments made by the Treasury Agency in New York to cover expenditures of any kind in the interest of national defense, special exceptions shall be made. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, January 28, 1942.)

8. January 27, 1942. Decree opening a special credit of 300 contos for the expenses involved in the repatriation of Brazilian residents in Europe and the Far East. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, January 28, 1942.)

9. January 27, 1942. Decree providing that the garrison on Fernando Noronha Island be considered a special garrison. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, January 28, 1942.)

10. January 28, 1942. Severance of relations with the Axis powers. (*New York Times*, January 29, 1942.)

11. Order of the Chief of Police of the Federal District (who has jurisdiction in certain matters over the whole republic), stating that no subject of Germany, Italy, or Japan may travel from one place in the country to another without special permission granted by the Bureau of Aliens; providing for the revocation of permits to carry arms issued to the subjects of those countries and of licenses to do business in arms, munitions, or explosives or materials that could be utilized in the manufacture of explosives; and setting a period of 15 days within which all arms belonging to such subjects must be surrendered. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, January 31, 1942.)

CHILE

1. December 9, 1941. Decree of the Government declaring that Chile considers the United

States and any other American nation that has declared war or does so in the future as a non-belligerent in the present conflict. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago de Chile, December 11, 1941.)

COLOMBIA

1. December 8, 1941. Presidential note, recommending severance of diplomatic relations with Japan by the Government, approved by the Cabinet. (*Diario Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

2. December 9, 1941. Senate approval given to measures taken by the Government with relation to Japan. (*Diario Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

3. December 9, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2098 suspending until further notice the operation of experimental or amateur radio stations. (*Diario Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

4. December 10, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2102 restricting communications abroad by cable, radio, or telephone. (*Diario Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

5. December 13, 1941. Law No. 128, containing economic and financial provisions and granting to the President extraordinary powers until July 20, 1942, so that he may take any measures required by conditions at home or abroad. (*Diario Oficial*, December 16, 1941.)

6. December 16, 1941. Resolution of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs regulating the admission of foreigners under contract to companies established in the republic. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, December 17, 1941.)

7. December 19, 1941. Severance of diplomatic relations with Germany and Italy. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, December 20, 1941.)

8. December 19, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2190 (in accordance with Law No. 128 and Decree No. 1205 of June 25, 1940) providing for strict control over foreigners and radio stations, and for other measures conducive to public safety. [The 1940 decree dealt with the expulsion of resident foreigners who were spreading propaganda endangering national security.] (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, December 20, 1941.)

COSTA RICA

1. December 8, 1941. Legislative Resolution No. 2, authorizing the Executive Power to declare war on Japan and any other non-American power that commits acts of aggression or declares war against one of the American Republics, and giving consent to the entrance and stationing of land, sea, and air forces of friendly nations in national territory and of squadrons of such nations in national

ports and maritime zones. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 10, 1941.)

2. December 8, 1941. Executive Decree No. 3, declaring that a state of war exists between the Republic of Costa Rica and the Japanese Empire. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 10, 1941.)

3. December 9, 1941. Legislative Resolution No. 3, suspending, for the sake of public order and national security, certain specified constitutional guarantees. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 10, 1941.)

4. December 10, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 42, excepting from the suspension of constitutional guarantees referred to in Resolution No. 3 of December 9, 1941, the procedure connected with the election of deputies and municipal officials to take place in February 1942. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 11, 1941.)

5. December 11, 1941. Executive Decree No. 4, declaring that a state of war exists between the Republic of Costa Rica and Germany and Italy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941.)

6. December 11, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 44, canceling all licenses for the installation and operation of amateur radio stations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941.)

7. December 11, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 45, expropriating for the benefit of army stores all dynamite, other explosives, arms, and ammunition in the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941.)

8. December 11, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 46, expropriating for government use a specified electric power plant and substation and placing its administration in charge of the Department of Development (*Secretaría de Fomento*) through the National Electric Power Service (*Servicio Nacional de Electricidad*). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941.)

9. December 11, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 47, placing all Japanese, German, and Italian nationals in the country under military surveillance and prohibiting their exit from their place of residence without special permission of the military authorities. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941.)

10. December 11, 1941. Executive Decree No. 11, requiring all citizens to cooperate with the authorities in national defense; guaranteeing safety to nationals of enemy nations who comply with the rules established for their conduct; prohibiting the uncensored transmission of radio or cable messages to Italy, Germany, and Japan; and designating certain acts that will be considered

helpful to the enemy and therefore subject to penalties of military law. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941.)

11. December 18, 1941. Executive Decree No. 12, regulating Decree No. 11 of December 11, 1941, with particular regard to the possession, registration, and deposit of firearms, ammunition, and explosives. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 21, 1941.)

12. December 20, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 51, regulating the conduct to be observed by German, Italian, and Japanese nationals in respect to obtaining permission to leave the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 21, 1941.)

13. December 24, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 34, authorizing the Executive Power to take necessary measures to develop and protect agricultural, industrial, and commercial activities, with particular regard to difficulties that may result from the war, and creating the Economic Defense Board (*Junta de Defensa Económica*). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 30, 1941.)

14. December 26, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 52, terminating all commerce between nationals or foreigners residing in Costa Rica and persons of any nationality residing in Japan, Germany, and Italy; requiring all Japanese, German, and Italian nationals resident in Costa Rica to make a complete and detailed declaration of their goods and property; and placing under special governmental control and vigilance all commercial activities carried on by Japanese, German, and Italian nationals resident in Costa Rica, by business firms of which such nationals form part, and by all stock companies in which such nationals own more than 25 percent of the stock. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 27, 1941.)

15. January 5, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1, extending to February 28, 1942, the period of time for nationals of friendly nations resident in the Republic of Costa Rica to obtain their certificates of residence. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

16. January 7, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1, prescribing rules and regulations for compliance with Decree No. 44 of October 10, 1941 (in regard to control of commercial and industrial activities of nationals of enemy nations) and Decree No. 52 of December 26, 1941 (in regard to property declarations by German, Italian, and Japanese nationals). (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

17. January 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 5, abrogating as of December 11, 1941, the Treaty

of June 14, 1933, between the Republic of Costa Rica and the Kingdom of Italy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 18, 1942.)

CUBA

1. December 9, 1941. Law No. 32. Joint Resolution of Congress declaring that a state of war exists between the Republic of Cuba and the Empire of Japan. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, December 9, 1941.)

2. December 10, 1941. Resolution No. 1 (Alien Property Custodian), providing for the sealing of bank safety deposit boxes belonging to nationals or groups of nationals of Germany, Italy, and Japan. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 20, 1941, p. 21727.)

3. December 10, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3321, providing for unification of the nation's police force under the immediate supervision of the Chief of the Central Division, National Police. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 11, 1941, p. 21114.)

4. December 11, 1941. Law No. 33. Joint Resolution declaring that a state of war exists between the Republic of Cuba and the German Reich and the Kingdom of Italy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, December 11, 1941.)

5. December 11, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3341, prohibiting nationals of countries with which Cuba is at war from residing at or near ports or other coastal points; giving those who reside in such places 10 days in which to move; and requiring that places and changes of residence of enemy aliens be registered. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941, p. 21209.)

6. December 12, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3343, establishing government supervision of commercial relations of countries with which Cuba is at war and government custody of the property of detained or interned aliens; defining enemy aliens; requiring them to make detailed declarations of their funds and property; and establishing the Office of Alien Property Custodian and defining the duties and functions thereof. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, December 12, 1941.)

7. December 12, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3365, prohibiting the circulation of correspondence for nationals of enemy countries; prohibiting the use of codes or keys in postal, telegraphic, cable, or radio communications; and providing that all such correspondence may be transmitted only in Spanish or English. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 15, 1941, p. 21344.)

8. December 12, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3369, requiring manufacturers, importers and merchants to make declarations of their stocks on hand of specified drugs (quinine, sulfanilamide, etc.) and thereafter to make fortnightly reports of such stocks, and prohibiting the export or re-export of such products. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 18, 1941, p. 21532.) (This was followed by a Department of Commerce decree dated December 22, 1941, prescribing rules and regulations for making such declarations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 2, 1942, p. 35.)

9. December 15, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3366, prohibiting the transfer of all kinds of funds or credits to enemy countries; authorizing the establishment of reciprocal restrictions on the export of means of payment to such countries; and prohibiting the withdrawal of funds and securities on deposit in Cuban banks by nationals of enemy countries. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 16, 1941, p. 21399.)

10. December 16, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3380, authorizing the Habana Clearing House and its associated banks to use international telegraphic codes in their business activities. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 18, 1941, p. 21537.)

11. December 16, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3384, establishing the Office of the Alien Property Custodian as an independent agency and placing at its head the Alien Property Custodian whose duties were described in Presidential Decree No. 3343 of December 12, 1941. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 17, 1941, p. 21501.)

12. December 16, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3420, prohibiting the issuance of passport visas to nationals of the anti-democratic warring nations and establishing certain other passport regulations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 22, 1941, p. 21751.)

13. December 18, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3415, amplifying the provisions of Decree No. 3343 (effective December 12, 1941), in regard to the property of enemy aliens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, December 19, 1941.)

14. December 19, 1941. Special Law No. 34, declaring that a State of National Emergency exists for a period of 45 days; delegating certain legislative powers to the Council of Ministers (such as organization of all the nation's armed forces; levying of taxes on articles not previously subject to direct taxation and on certain other specified articles, products, income, and money; increase of postal rates; and the regulation and coordination of communications, labor, transport-

tation, industry, commerce, and agriculture to achieve more effective action in the war effort); and establishing a Permanent Congressional Committee to function during the emergency period for the purpose of receiving reports from the Council of Ministers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 23, 1941, p. 21847.)

15. December 19, 1941. Resolution of the Department of the Interior publishing a list of Japanese enemy aliens resident in the Republic, ordering their detention and internment, and providing for custody of their property. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, December 19, 1941.)

16. December 20, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3421, declaring that all postal money orders payable to enemy aliens in Cuba will be considered as part of their property. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 23, 1941, p. 21891.)

17. December 20, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3422, extending the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 3366 of December 15, 1941, in regard to withdrawal of money or savings deposits, to include money deposited by nationals of enemy countries in the Postal Savings Bank of the Ministry of Communications and requiring that bank to make a report to the Alien Property Custodian of such funds on deposit. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 23, 1941, p. 21891.)

18. December 20, 1941. Resolution suspending all licenses issued to Japanese, German, and Italian nationals for the possession of firearms and ordering that all firearms in possession of such nationals be confiscated. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 22, 1941, p. 21817.)

19. December 22, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3429, assigning to the jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Defense the National Academy of Civil Aviation and Air Reserve (*Academia Nacional de Aviación Civil y Reserva Aérea*) and the Naval Sports Academy (*Academia Naval Deportiva*). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 24, 1941, p. 21946.)

20. December 22, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3430, prohibiting flights over national territory by privately owned and operated planes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 24, 1941, p. 21947.)

21. December 22, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3448, clarifying Decree No. 3343 (effective December 12, 1941) in regard to enemy countries and allies of enemy countries, placing in the first category Germany and the annexed nations of Austria and Czechoslovakia; Japan, including

Karatufe, Korea, Kwantung, Formosa, and islands under Japanese mandate; and Italy and its possessions in North Africa; and in the second category, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, Finland, and Thailand. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 26, 1941, p. 22007.)

22. December 23, 1941. First resolution publishing a list of Italian enemy aliens and ordering their detention and internment. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 2, 1942, p. 65.)

23. December 23, 1941. Resolution No. 2 (Alien Property Custodian), extending the provisions of Resolution No. 1 of December 10, 1941, in regard to the sealing of safety deposit boxes belonging to enemy aliens, to include the nationals of countries allied with the enemy countries. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 26, 1941, p. 22055.)

24. December 26, 1941. Resolution amending the Resolution of December 19, 1941, in regard to the internment of certain listed Japanese enemy aliens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 27, 1941, p. 22071.)

25. December 26, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3463, extending, on account of the difficulties of transportation caused by the war, the period for embarkation of raw sugar destined for the United States from December 31, 1941, to January 15, 1942. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, December 29, 1941.)

26. December 27, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3485, clarifying Decree No. 2752 of October 6, 1941 (which created the Import-Export Office), and prescribing rules and regulations in regard to the export and reexport of specified products and articles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 30, 1941, p. 22263.)

27. December 27, 1941. Resolution (Alien Property Custodian), authorizing the Alien Property Custodian to fix 6 percent and 2 percent as the quotas to be levied upon the persons or entities whose goods and property are taken over by the Alien Property Custodian, as reimbursement for expenses incurred thereby. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 30, 1941, p. 22281.)

28. December 29, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3497, authorizing the delivery of correspondence to nationals of enemy countries, after investigation of their conduct and provided such correspondence does not come from enemy countries. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 31, 1941, p. 22304.)

29. December 29, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3498, closing all amateur radio stations in the country except certain specified ones, and

providing that selected amateur stations may be taken over by the Ministry of Communications for emergency service. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 31, 1941, p. 22304.)

30. December 29, 1941. Resolution prescribing means for compliance with the rules governing the Alien Registration Office. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 31, 1941, p. 22372.)

31. December 30, 1941. First, second, and third resolutions publishing lists of German enemy aliens resident in the Republic and providing for their detention and internment. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 10, 1942, p. 513; January 11, 1942, p. 929; January 19, 1942, p. 994.)

32. December 31, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 3527, providing that the legislative acts adopted by the Council of Ministers under the authority granted them by Special Law No. 34 of December 19, 1941, shall be designated as Resolution-Laws (*Acuerdos-Leyes*), to avoid confusion with other regular and special laws. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 31, 1941, p. 22359.)

33. December 31, 1941. Resolution-Law No. 1, levying new taxes for national defense, including luxury taxes, additional sugar production taxes, income taxes, and taxes on the export of funds. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 31, 1941, p. 22361.)

34. December 31, 1941. Resolution-Law No. 2, reorganizing the National Police. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 3, 1942, p. 97.)

35. January 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 36, authorizing the Cuban Sugar Institute to allow the export to the United States of any surpluses of sugar remaining at the end of the calendar year 1941, in order to relieve the sugar shortage in United States markets. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 8, 1942, p. 357.)

36. January 5, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 3, Law of Security and Public Order, setting up special regulations for the preservation of the public safety and order during the emergency. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 7, 1942, p. 321.)

37. January 5, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 4, Law of Emergency Military Service, prescribing rules and regulations for voluntary and obligatory military service, recruiting offices, registration, etc. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 7, 1942, p. 326.)

38. January 8, 1942. Resolution authorizing temporary confiscation of radio receiver sets, other radio apparatus, and cameras in the hands of enemy aliens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 14, 1942, p. 711.)

39. January 12, 1942. Resolution excepting specified persons from the published list of Italian enemy aliens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 15, 1942, p. 769.)

40. January 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 87, placing the Alien Registration Office under jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Defense. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 14, 1942, p. 738.)

41. January 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 88, prescribing measures to be followed by importing and exporting businesses to prevent unjustified business failures. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 14, 1942, p. 738.)

42. January 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 84, extending the reexport restrictions to include all products and articles that enter the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 15, 1942, p. 772.)

43. January 17, 1942. Two resolutions, excepting specified persons from the published list of Italian enemy aliens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 19, 1942, pp. 994 and 995.)

44. January 19, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 127, putting into effect all provisions of the Law of Security and Public Order (Resolution-Law No. 3, January 5, 1942) except Ch. VII which pertains to the suspension of constitutional guarantees. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 22, 1942, p. 1185.)

45. January 20, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 5, Production and Supply Law, giving the Executive Power authority to regulate agricultural and industrial production, distribution, prices, wages, and Federal, provincial, and local taxes, as may be required in the nation's war effort. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 21, 1942, p. 1089.)

46. January 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 125, placing under government control the commercial handling of automobile, bus, and truck tires and tubes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 21, 1942, p. 1123.)

47. January 20, 1942. Three decrees (of the Treasury Department) regulating some of the provisions of Resolution-Law No. 1 of December 31, 1941, in regard to the payment of certain luxury taxes and the income tax. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 20, 1942, pp. 1057-59.)

48. January 22, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 6, Law of Transportation and Communications, establishing rules, regulations, and priorities for the use and services of the nation's transportation and communication systems. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 24, 1942, p. 1345.)

49. January 27, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 7, Organic Law of the Army and Navy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, January 31, 1942.)

50. January 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 178, authorizing the Cuban Sugar Institute to acquire the entire 1942 sugar crop and sell it to the Defense Supplies Corporation of the United States, and prescribing rules and regulations for carrying out that purpose. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, January 28, 1942.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

1. December 8, 1941. Decree No. 631, authorizing the President, as an act of solidarity with the United States of America, to declare the existence of a state of war between the Dominican Republic and the Japanese Empire. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941.)

2. December 8, 1941. Presidential proclamation declaring a state of war between the Dominican Republic and the Japanese Empire. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941.)

3. December 11, 1941. Law No. 632, authorizing the Executive Power to take control of foreign funds whenever it is deemed advisable. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 13, 1941.)

4. December 11, 1941. Decree No. 633, authorizing the President, as an act of solidarity with the United States of America, to declare the existence of a state of war between the Dominican Republic and the German Reich. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 13, 1941.)

5. December 11, 1941. Presidential proclamation declaring a state of war between the Dominican Republic and the German Reich. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 13, 1941.)

6. December 11, 1941. Decree No. 634, authorizing the President, as an act of solidarity with the United States of America, to declare the existence of a state of war between the Dominican Republic and the Kingdom of Italy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 13, 1941.)

7. December 11, 1941. Presidential proclamation declaring a state of war between the Dominican Republic and the Kingdom of Italy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 13, 1941.)

8. December 11, 1941. Executive Decree No. 1366, freezing all funds, credits, securities, and property in the Dominican Republic belonging to or administered by the Japanese Empire, the German Reich, or the Kingdom of Italy, and belonging to or administered by nationals of those countries. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 13, 1941.)

9. December 11, 1941. Executive Decree No. 1367, establishing censorship on the sending and receiving of foreign and domestic cable, radio, and telephone messages and establishing control of radio broadcasting and newspapers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 13, 1941.)

10. December 16, 1941. Executive Decree No. 1372, establishing rules for the control of the funds of the countries, and nationals thereof, with which the Dominican Republic is at war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 18, 1941.)

11. December 23, 1941. Executive Decree No. 1387, naming members of a Special Commission charged with the control of funds belonging to the foreign countries, and nationals thereof, with which the Dominican Republic is at war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 27, 1941.)

ECUADOR

1. December 8, 1941. Declaration by Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Government's adherence to the fundamental principle of solidarity of the American Continent. (*El Telégrafo*, Guayaquil, December 9, 1941.)

2. December 9, 1941. Orders issued by Government that property of Pan American-Grace Airways (airports, radio stations, etc.) be guarded to protect it from any possible damage. (*El Telégrafo*, Guayaquil, December 10, 1941.)

3. December 12, 1941. Following defense steps taken by Ecuadorean Government: Closed the German news agency *Transocean* and the Japanese publicity agencies *El Mundo* and *Intereses Comerciales*; notified all Japanese residents that they would be given eight days in which to arrange their affairs and prepare to leave the country, after which time they would be sent to Riobamba for internment, if still in the country. (*El Telégrafo*, Guayaquil, December 13, 1941.)

4. December 12, 1941. The Ministry of Foreign Affairs denounced, in the name of the Government of Ecuador, the commercial treaties between Ecuador and Germany, Italy, France, the Netherlands, and Belgium. (*El Comercio*, Quito, December 24, 1941.)

5. December 16, 1941. Official commission appointed by the President to study the problems of the scarcity of articles of prime necessity, the closing of foreign markets, and the high cost of living, all resulting from the war. (*El Telégrafo*, Guayaquil, December 17, 1941.)

6. January 3, 1942. Presidential decree establishing military defense zones in the Cantons of

Santa Elena and Salinas, Province of Guayas, and prohibiting transit therein to nationals of the countries at war with any American nation without express permission of the Minister of National Defense. (*El Telégrafo*, Guayaquil, January 4, 1942.)

7. January 28, 1942. Severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, Italy, and Japan. (*New York Times*, January 29, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

1. December 8, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 90, declaring El Salvador at war with Japan, and authorizing the President to take such measures as the emergency calls for. (*Diario Oficial*, December 9, 1941.)

2. December 8, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 91, declaring a state of siege throughout the republic, and authorizing the President to permit the forces of any American nation to occupy any part of national territory and territorial waters when necessary for continental defense. (*Diario Oficial*, December 9, 1941.)

3. December 12, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 93, declaring El Salvador at war with Germany and Italy. (*Diario Oficial*, December 15, 1941.)

4. December 15, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 94, setting at 3,000 men the armed forces for guarding cities, ports, and arsenals during 1942. (*Diario Oficial*, December 17, 1941.)

5. December 20, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 100, amending previous legislation so as to prevent the mining industry from being affected through a sudden closing, because of the war, of the markets providing it with needed supplies. (*Diario Oficial*, January 5, 1942.)

6. December 24, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 114, authorizing the President to accept the offer of the United States to supply El Salvador with armaments to a value of \$1,640,000; Presidential Decree 2 of January 6, 1942, empowered the Chargé d'Affaires at Washington to continue and conclude, if possible, these negotiations, in accordance with the provisions of the Lease-Lend Act, and to sign the contract for such purchases. (*Diario Oficial*, January 7, 9, 1942.)

7. January 8, 1942. Presidential Decree terminating, as of December 15, 1941, the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation signed with Italy on March 19, 1934, and the Treaty of Commerce signed with Germany on April 14, 1908, together with all protocols or pacts subsequently adding to or modifying either pact. (*Diario Oficial*, January 12, 1942.)

GUATEMALA

1. December 8, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 2563 declaring that a state of war exists with Japan, and empowering the President to take such measures and issue such orders as may be necessary for the defense of the nation. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 10, 1941.)

2. December 9, 1941. Presidential Order creating in the Department of Foreign Affairs the Section of Economic-Financial Coordination, to coordinate the information to be supplied to the United States Government concerning articles and raw materials affected by special export regulations, especially priority permits, in order to avoid delay in obtaining such articles and materials. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 19, 1941.)

3. December 12, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 2564 declaring that a state of war exists with Germany and Italy, and reiterating the special powers granted to the president. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 12, 1941.)

4. December 12, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2648, suspending certain constitutional guarantees as regards nationals of Japan, Germany, and Italy resident in Guatemala. Confirmed by Legislative Decree No. 2565, December 16. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 12, 19, 1941.)

5. December 12, 1941. Presidential Order defining the activities of Germans, Japanese, and Italians that are restricted by the foregoing decree. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 13, 1941.)

6. December 13, 1941. Presidential Order forbidding the registry of transactions in real estate held in the name of Germans, Japanese, and Italians. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 15, 1941.)

7. December 19, 1941. Presidential Order providing that for the duration of the war radio communication by telegraph or telephone and cablegrams may be sent only in Spanish and English and no commercial or private codes may be used. (*Diario de Centro América*, January 7, 1942.)

8. December 22, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2654 establishing, for the duration of the war, additional taxes on coffee and sugar produced on property belonging to natives or citizens of Japan, Germany, Italy, Hungary, Rumania, Bulgaria, Finland, and other states occupied or constituted by any of those nations, and a tax on the net profits of profit-making enterprises belonging to such

individuals, the revenues so derived to be used preferentially for purposes of national defense. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 23, 1941.)

9. December 20, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2651, providing that Guatemalans who have qualified for an officer's rank in a foreign Military Academy may, after examination, be admitted into the Army as officers. (*Diario de Centro América*, December 29, 1941.)

10. December 23, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2655, promulgating, in accordance with the powers granted by Legislative Decrees 2563 and 2564, the Emergency Law, which embodies the provisions of several of the Presidential decrees listed above, and includes other measures for national defense. (*Diario de Centro América*, January 2, 1942.)

11. January 9, 1942. Presidential Order approving general instructions for civilian defense issued by the War Department. (*Diario de Centro América*, January 16, 1942.)

HAITI

1. December 8, 1941. Message of the President to the Permanent Committee of the National Assembly, declaring the Haitian Government's solidarity with the international policies of the United States and asking authorization to declare war on the Japanese Empire. (*Le Moniteur*, December 8, 1941.)

2. December 8, 1941. Executive Decree No. 76, declaring that a state of war exists between the Republic of Haiti and the Japanese Empire. (*Le Moniteur*, December 8, 1941.)

3. December 8, 1941. Executive Order No. 93, declaring the Republic in a state of siege and proclaiming martial law throughout the nation. (*Le Moniteur*, December 8, 1941.)

4. December 8, 1941. Presidential Proclamation to the Haitian people, reporting on the war and the Government's action in connection therewith. (*Le Moniteur*, December 8, 1941.)

5. December 12, 1941. Message of the President to the Permanent Committee of the National Assembly, asking authorization to declare war on Italy and the German Reich. (*Le Moniteur*, December 15, 1941.)

6. December 12, 1941. Executive Decree No. 77, declaring that a state of war exists between the Republic of Haiti and the German Reich. (*Le Moniteur*, December 15, 1941.)

7. December 12, 1941. Executive Decree No. 78, declaring that a state of war exists between

the Republic of Haiti and Italy. (*Le Moniteur*, December 15, 1941.)

8. December 12, 1941. Presidential proclamation to the Haitian people regarding the declarations of war and Haiti's part in the battle of the democracies. (*Le Moniteur*, December 15, 1941.)

9. December 12, 1941. Executive Order No. 95, allocating a special credit of 100,000 gourdes to the Department of the Interior for police expenses and for the safeguarding of the Republic in view of the war emergency. (*Le Moniteur*, December 15, 1941.)

10. December 18, 1941. Decree-Law No. 80, defining "enemies" and "allies of enemies" and freezing funds and properties in Haiti belonging to governments, individuals, corporations, or groups of individuals of all countries with which Haiti is at war. (*Le Moniteur*, December 18, 1941.)

11. December 24, 1941. Message of the President to the Permanent Committee of the National Assembly, asking authorization to declare war on Hungary, Bulgaria, and Rumania. (*Le Moniteur*, December 25, 1941.)

12. December 24, 1941. Executive Decree No. 83, declaring that a state of war exists between the Republic of Haiti and Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria. (*Le Moniteur*, December 25, 1941.)

13. December 29, 1941. Decree-Law No. 84, regulating the execution of Decree-Law No. 80 (December 18, 1941) in regard to the freezing of funds and property belonging to enemy nations, and ordering the liquidation of enemy commercial houses, associations, and firms. (*Le Moniteur*, January 1, 1942.)

14. December 29, 1941. Decree-Law No. 85, revoking all licenses for the importation and sale of firearms and ammunition and requiring all dealers in such articles to declare their stocks on hand. (*Le Moniteur*, January 1, 1942.)

15. December 29, 1941. Decree-Law No. 86, defining the duties of Government departments and creating the new Departments of National Defense and of National Economy. (*Le Moniteur*, January 1, 1942.)

16. January 5, 1942. Executive Order No. 105, naming the Secretaries and Assistant Secretaries for the new Departments of National Defense and National Economy. (*Le Moniteur*, January 5, 1942.)

HONDURAS

1. December 8, 1941. Declaration of war with Japan by Congress. (Cited in preamble to Presidential Order, next item.)

2. December 9, 1941. Presidential Order freezing Japanese funds in Honduras. Confirmed by Legislative Decree No. 8 of December 17. (*La Gaceta*, December 11, 19, 1941.)

3. December 9, 1941. Legislative Decree declaring a state of siege in the republic. (*La Gaceta*, December 20, 1941.)

4. December 12, 1941. Declaration of war with Germany and Italy by Congress. (*El Cronista*, Tegucigalpa, December 12, 1941.)

5. December 15, 1941. Presidential Order freezing Italian and German funds in Honduras. Confirmed by Legislative Decree No. 9 of December 17, which also empowers the President to extend the provisions of the order to funds of other enemy nationals. (*La Gaceta*, December 19, 1941.)

MEXICO

1. December 8, 1941. Announcement by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the rupture of diplomatic relations between the Government of Mexico and the Empire of Japan. (*El Universal*, Mexico, December 9, 1941.)

2. December 10, 1941. Executive Order to the Departments of National Defense, Navy, and Public Education, to the effect that the Adjutant's Office is changed to the Presidential General Staff, charged with the duty of maintaining efficient coordination between the High Command and the Departments of National Defense, Navy, and Public Education. (*El Universal*, Mexico, December 11, 1941.)

3. December 10, 1941. Executive Order to the Departments of National Defense and the Navy, establishing the Pacific Military Zone (comprising twelve former Army and two former Navy zones) and placing the new Zone under one command in order to achieve a more complete and unified control of the Pacific coastal area. (*El Universal*, Mexico, December 11, 1941.)

4. December 10, 1941. Executive Order to the Secretary of National Defense, ordering that General Lázaro Cárdenas be designated Commanding General of the Pacific Military Zone as established on the same date. (*El Universal*, Mexico, December 11, 1941.)

5. December 11, 1941. Announcement by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the breaking off of diplomatic relations between the Government of Mexico and Germany and Italy. (*El Universal*, Mexico, December 12, 1941.)

6. December 7 and 11, 1941. Treasury Department Orders limiting the use by Japanese

nationals of their funds on deposit in Mexico. (*Diario Oficial*, December 17, 1941.)

7. December 11, 1941. Treasury Department Order limiting the use by German and Italian nationals of their funds on deposit in Mexico. (*Diario Oficial*, December 17, 1941.)

(These three orders do not absolutely freeze the funds in question; by express authorization of the Department of the Treasury and Public Credit a limited use may be allowed.)

8. December 23, 1941. Announcement by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the breaking off of diplomatic relations between Mexico and Bulgaria, Hungary, and Rumania. (*El Universal*, Mexico, December 24, 1941.)

9. December 27, 1941. Decree defining various aspects of Mexico's position in the international conflict; providing specifically that American nations at war with countries of other continents will not be considered as belligerents, granting the use of Mexican waters and ports to warships and planes of any of the American Republics, and authorizing permission to be granted for the passage through Mexican territory of military forces of other republics of the hemisphere. (*Diario Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

10. January 12, 1941. Announcement of establishment of a Joint Mexican-United States Defense Commission, to study the problems relating to the defense of the two countries and to propose to the respective Governments the measures that should be adopted. (*El Universal*, Mexico, January 13, 1942; *Bulletin*, U. S. Department of State, January 17, 1942.)

NICARAGUA

1. December 8, 1941. Presidential Decree suspending specified constitutional guarantees. (*La Gaceta*, December 9, 1941.)

2. December 9, 1941. Joint Congressional Resolution No. 35 stating that since December 8 a state of war had existed between Nicaragua and the Empire of Japan and authorizing the President to declare war on any non-American power that commits acts of aggression against any of the American Republics or declares war on them. (*La Gaceta*, December 12, 1941.)

3. December 11, 1941. Presidential Decree declaring that a state of war exists between Nicaragua and Germany and Italy. (*La Gaceta*, December 12, 1941.)

4. December 16, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 70 blocking funds belonging to citizens of

Japan, Germany, and Italy, or to those on the United States "black list," and authorizing the Superintendent of Banks to set up a register of bank accounts belonging to such citizens or business firms. (*La Gaceta*, December 18, 1941.)

5. December 16, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 71 prohibiting international trade of any kind with Japan, Germany, Italy, their possessions, or countries occupied by them; forbidding the transfer of funds to those countries; and freezing foreign exchange belonging to their citizens. (*La Gaceta*, December 18, 1941.)

6. December 16, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 72 obliging all those on the United States "black list" who own or administer coffee plantations to deliver their crops to the Import-Export Office of the National Bank of Nicaragua for marketing and sale. (*La Gaceta*, December 18, 1941.)

7. December 19, 1941. Presidential Decree declaring that a state of war exists between Nicaragua and Hungary, Bulgaria, and Rumania. (*La Prensa*, Managua, December 20, 1941.)

8. December 22, 1941. Presidential Decree, suspending additional constitutional guarantees. (*La Prensa*, Managua, December 25, 1941.)

PANAMA

1. December 8, 1941. Decree-Law No. 13, prohibiting the exportation of gold, funds, or securities belonging to the Government of Japan, to Japanese nationals, or the agents thereof. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 26, 1941.)

2. December 10, 1941. Law No. 104, declaring the existence since December 7, 1941, of a state of war between the Republic of Panama and the Japanese Empire, authorizing the President to declare a state of war with Japan's allies, suspending for the duration of the war certain rights guaranteed by the Constitution of Panama to nationals of Japan and its allies, and empowering the Government to take various emergency defense steps. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 10, 1941.)

3. December 10, 1941. Decree No. 67, creating a Supply Commission for the purpose of investigating stocks on hand of articles of prime necessity and recommending measures to avoid a scarcity. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 22, 1941.)

4. December 11, 1941. Decree No. 128, regulating the freezing of Japanese, German, and Italian property and funds and placing them under the supervision of the Alien Property Custodian. (*Panama Star and Herald*, Panama, December 14, 1941, Spanish section, p. 2.)

5. December 12, 1941. Decree No. 14, declaring the existence of a state of war between Panama and Germany. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 26, 1941.)

6. December 12, 1941. Decree No. 15, declaring the existence of a state of war between Panama and Italy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 26, 1941.)

7. December 15, 1941. Decree No. 265, setting up a Civil Defense Commission under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Government and Justice, for the control of all civilian defense activities. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 20, 1941.)

8. December 16, 1941. Decree No. 16, making it obligatory for all public employees to render special services whenever and wherever called upon during the emergency. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 27, 1941.)

9. December 18, 1941. Decree No. 75, re-establishing the General Price Control Commission. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 23, 1941.)

10. December 22, 1941. Decree No. 110, prohibiting the immigration of natives of countries with which Panama is at war and of countries allied with such nations, and restricting immigration of individuals coming from nations occupied by Germany, Italy, and Japan, to special cases. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 5, 1942.)

PARAGUAY

1. December 10, 1941. Declaration of solidarity with the United States. (*New York Times*, January 27, 1942.)

2. January 25, 1942. Government resolution severing diplomatic relations with the Axis powers. (*El Pais*, Asunción, January 26, 1942.)

PERU

1. December 8, 1941. Presidential Decree freezing Japanese funds. (*El Comercio*, Lima, December 9, 1941.)

2. December 10, 1941. Treasury Resolution giving general rules for execution of decree freezing Japanese funds. (*El Comercio*, Lima, December 10, 1941.)

3. January 24, 1942. Severance of relations with Japan, Germany, and Italy. (*New York Times*, January 25, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

1. December 7, 1941. Presidential Proclamation No. 2525, regarding conduct to be observed

by Japanese alien enemies. (*Federal Register*, December 10, 1941.)

2. December 8, 1941. Joint Resolution of Congress declaring that a state of war exists between the Imperial Government of Japan and the Government and the people of the United States and making provisions to prosecute the same. (Public Law 328, 77th Congress.)

3. December 8, 1941. Presidential Proclamation No. 2526, regarding conduct to be observed by German alien enemies. (*Federal Register*, December 10, 1941.)

4. December 8, 1941. Presidential Proclamation No. 2527, regarding conduct to be observed by Italian alien enemies. (*Federal Register*, December 10, 1941.)

5. December 10, 1941. Executive Order No. 8964, prescribing regulations governing the use, control, and closing of radio stations and the preference on priority of communications. (*Federal Register*, December 12, 1941.)

6. December 11, 1941. Joint Resolution of Congress declaring that a state of war exists between the Government of Germany and the Government and the people of the United States and making provision to prosecute the same. (Public Law 331, 77th Congress.)

7. December 11, 1941. Joint Resolution of Congress declaring that a state of war exists between the Government of Italy and the Government and the people of the United States and making provision to prosecute the same. (Public Law 332, 77th Congress.)

8. December 11, 1941. Executive Order No. 8970, establishing defensive sea areas at various places on the Atlantic and Pacific Coasts. (*Federal Register*, December 16, 1941.)

9. December 12, 1941. Executive Order No. 8972, authorizing Secretaries of War and Navy to establish and maintain military guards and patrols for protection of certain national defense materials, premises, and utilities. (*Federal Register*, December 16, 1941.)

10. December 12, 1941. Executive Order No. 8976, authorizing the Secretary of Commerce to waive navigation and vessel inspection laws in order to further the successful prosecution of the war. (*Federal Register*, December 17, 1941.)

11. December 13, 1941. Public Law 337 (77th Congress), providing for the extension of the term of enlistment in the Navy in time of war.

12. December 13, 1941. Public Law 338 (77th Congress), removing restrictions on the territorial

use of units and members of the Army of the United States, extending the periods of service of such personnel, and amending the National Defense Act with respect to the meaning of the term "Army of the United States."

13. December 13, 1941. Executive Order No. 8974, prescribing powers of the Secretaries of Commerce and of War with respect to civil aviation. (*Federal Register*, December 17, 1941.)

14. December 16, 1941. Executive Order No. 8978, establishing defensive sea areas at certain places on the Atlantic Coast. (*Federal Register*, December 18, 1941.)

15. December 17, 1941. Public Law 353 (77th Congress), Third Supplemental National Defense Appropriation Act, 1942 (including \$388,000,000 for expediting the production of equipment and supplies for national defense, \$779,000,000 for the Army Air Corps, \$120,000,000 for defense installations on merchant vessels, \$300,000,000 for temporary and emergency construction of shipbuilding facilities, and \$949,720,000 for new construction, procurement, production, and purchase of naval aircraft).

16. December 18, 1941. Executive Order No. 8984, prescribing the duties of the Commander-in-Chief of the United States Fleet and the cooperative duties of the Chief of Naval Operations. (*Federal Register*, December 20, 1941.)

17. December 18, 1941. Public Law 354 (77th Congress). The First War Powers Act (to expedite the prosecution of the war effort by providing for coordination of Executive Bureaus in the interest of the more efficient concentration of government; contracts entered into by any department or agency of government in the prosecution of the war effort; trading with the enemy).

18. December 18, 1941. Executive Order No. 8989, establishing the Office of Defense Transportation to coordinate and direct all domestic transportation facilities (rail, motor, inland waterway, pipe line, air transport, and coastwise and inter-coastal shipping). (*Federal Register*, December 25, 1941.)

19. December 19, 1941. Executive Order No. 8985, establishing Office of Censorship and Censorship Policy Board for censoring communications by mail, cable, radio, or other means of transmission between the United States and any foreign country. (*Federal Register*, December 23, 1941.)

20. December 20, 1941. Public Law 360 (77th Congress), amending the Selective Training and

Service Act of 1940 by providing for the extension of liability for military service and for the registration of the man power of the nation.

21. December 23, 1941. Public Law 369 (77th Congress), establishing the composition of the United States Navy and authorizing the construction of certain naval vessels.

22. December 23, 1941. Public Law 371 (77th Congress), providing additional appropriations incident to the national defense for the fiscal years 1942 and 1943 (including \$10,000,000 for public relief and civilian defense in the Philippine Islands).

23. December 26, 1941. Public Law 378 (77th Congress), authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to proceed in the establishment or development of naval shore activities by the construction of permanent or temporary naval public works, and authorizing the appropriation of \$310,000,000 therefor.

24. December 26, 1941. Executive Order No. 8991, coordinating civil meteorological facilities and services for war purposes. (*Federal Register*, December 30, 1941.)

25. December 27, 1941. Executive Order No. 9001, authorizing War and Navy Departments and U. S. Maritime Commission to perform the functions and exercise the powers described in Title II of the First War Powers Act (of December 18, 1941), with particular regard to industrial mobilization for the production of the necessary war materials. (*Federal Register*, December 30, 1941.)

26. January 2, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2533, amending the proclamations of December 7 and 8, 1941, relating to Japanese, German, and Italian alien enemies. (*Federal Register*, January 3, 1942.)

27. January 5, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2535, designating February 16, 1942, as registration day for all male citizens of the United States and all other male persons residing in continental United States, in the Territories of Alaska and Hawaii, and in Puerto Rico, between the ages of 20 and 44 years, under the provisions of the Selective Training and Service Act. (*Federal Register*, January 9, 1942.)

28. January 12, 1942. Public Law 398 (77th Congress), amending Public Law 39 (77th Congress), dated April 22, 1941, to increase the authorized enlisted strength of the Navy and Marine Corps.

29. January 12, 1942. Executive Order No. 9017, discontinuing the National Defense Mediation Board and establishing the National War Labor Board and defining its duties. (*Federal Register*, January 14, 1942.)

30. January 14, 1942. Executive Order No. 9023, extending the provisions of Executive Order No. 9001 of December 27, 1941, to contracts of various other Government departments. (*Federal Register*, January 16, 1942.)

31. January 14, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2537, prescribing regulations pertaining to alien enemies. (*Federal Register*, January 17, 1942.)

32. January 16, 1942. Executive Order No. 9024, establishing War Production Board in the Office for Emergency Management and defining its duties and functions. (*Federal Register*, January 17, 1942.)

33. January 20, 1942. Public Law 403 (77th Congress), establishing daylight saving time (officially called "war time") for the purpose of promoting the national security and defense (to remain in effect until six months after termination of the war).

34. January 21, 1942. Public Law 409, amending the Act of October 14, 1940, in regard to provision of housing facilities for persons engaged in national defense activities.

35. January 24, 1942. Executive Order No. 9038, amending Executive Order No. 9017 of January 12, 1942, to provide for appointment of associate members of the National War Labor Board. (*Federal Register*, January 27, 1942.)

36. January 24, 1942. Executive Order No. 9040, defining additional functions and duties of the War Production Board. (*Federal Register*, January 27, 1942.)

37. January 26, 1942. Public Law 413 (77th Congress), granting the President certain powers with respect to control of communications by wire.

38. January 26, 1942. Public Law 414 (77th Congress), amending the Neutrality Act of 1939 in regard to maintaining the secrecy of military information.

39. January 27, 1942. Public Law 415 (77th Congress), pertaining to protection against bombing attacks.

40. January 28, 1942. Executive Order No. 9046, amending Executive Order No. 8771 of June 6, 1941, in regard to the taking over of foreign merchant vessels. (*Federal Register*, January 30, 1942.)

41. January 29, 1942. Public Law 420 (77th Congress), authorizing appropriations of \$895,000,000 for the United States Navy, additional shipbuilding, and ship-repair facilities.

42. January 30, 1942. Public Law 421 (77th Congress). Emergency Price Control Act.

43. January 30, 1942. Public Law 422 (77th Congress), Fourth Supplemental National Defense Appropriation Act, 1942 (totaling \$12,555,000,000 and including \$933,000,000 for expediting production of equipment and supplies for national defense, \$9,041,373,090 for the Army Air Corps, \$1,547,948,529 for the Army Ordnance Department, \$680,242,180 for the Signal Service of the Army, and \$323,308,675 for the Chemical Warfare Service).

44. February 6, 1942. Public Law 438 (77th Congress), authorizing appropriation of \$450,000,000 for naval shore activities.

45. February 6, 1942. Public Law 440 (77th Congress), authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to undertake the construction of 1,799 minor combatant, auxiliary, and patrol vessels, in addition to those heretofore authorized, and authorizing him to provide, at a cost not exceeding \$750,000,000, essential equipment, facilities, and land at either private or public establishments within the United States, its Territories, or possessions, for the construction of such ships and the production of ordnance material.

46. February 6, 1942. Executive Order No. 9049, in reference to active service of organized reserves. (*Federal Register*, February 10, 1942.)

47. February 7, 1942. Public Law 441 (77th Congress), making appropriations for the Navy Department and the naval service for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1943, and additional appropriations therefor for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1942, and for other purposes (totaling \$26,500,000,000 and including \$8,000,000,000 for planes and other naval equipment, \$8,206,000,000 for fleet operations, and \$6,923,000,000 for ordnance).

48. February 7, 1942. Public Law 442 (77th Congress), Joint Resolution of Congress authorizing the President of the United States to render financial aid to China; authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury, with the approval of the President, to loan, extend credit, or give other financial aid to China in an amount not exceeding \$500,000,000; and authorizing the appropriation of such an amount for the purposes of this joint resolution.

49. February 7, 1942. Executive Order No. 9054, establishing the War Shipping Administration in the Office for Emergency Management and defining its duties (in regard to chartering, control of operation of vessels, etc.). (*Federal Register*, February 10, 1942.)

URUGUAY

1. December 8, 1941. Presidential Decree declaring that Uruguay will consider the United States a non-belligerent in the present conflict. (*Diario Oficial*, December 30, 1941.)

2. December 9, 1941. Presidential Decree prohibiting the transfer of funds abroad and the exportation of merchandise and securities to Japanese persons or organizations. (*Diario Oficial*, December 13, 1941.)

3. December 12, 1941. Presidential Decree prohibiting the transfer of funds abroad and the exportation of merchandise and securities to German or Italian persons or organizations. (*Diario Oficial*, December 19, 1941.)

4. December 13, 1941. Law authorizing the President to sign a convention with the United States for the purchase of armaments in that country, to the amount of \$1,300,000. (*Diario Oficial*, December 29, 1941.)

5. January 25, 1942. Presidential Decree breaking all diplomatic, economic, and financial relations with Japan, Germany, and Italy. (*Diario Oficial*, February 3, 1942.)

VENEZUELA

1. December 9, 1941. Address by the President stating the international policy of Venezuela and expressing the nation's solidarity with the United States and its decision to uphold the territorial integrity and political independence of all America. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 9, 1941.)

2. December 12, 1941. Decree restricting, throughout Venezuela, the exercise of specified individual guarantees provided by the Constitution, including the freezing of funds of nationals of countries at war with any American nation or of nations occupied by such countries. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria No. 5, December 12, 1941.)

3. December 12, 1941. Decree stating that, as regards the American nations at war with non-American countries, specified neutrality provisions will not apply. (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 12, 1941.)

4. December 16, 1941. Decree amplifying the provisions of the decree of December 12, 1941 (No. 2 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, December 16, 1941.)

5. December 31, 1941. Severance of diplomatic relations with Germany, Italy, and Japan. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 1, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

1. January 1, 1942. A Joint Declaration signed at Washington by The United States of America, The United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, The Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, China, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, India, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Pan-

ama, Poland, South Africa, Yugoslavia, in which each Government pledges itself to employ its full military and economic resources against the members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with which such government is at war, and not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemies. (*Bulletin*, U. S. Department of State, January 3, 1942.)

2. January 12, 1942. Establishment of Joint Mexican-United States Defense Commission. (See Mexico 10.)



NECROLOGY

FRANCISCO BARBA.—Mexican jurist. Legal consultant for several years in Office of the Attorney General; chief of personnel and legal consultant for National Railways. Member of Supreme Court, 1929–35; reappointed in January 1941. Died at the age of 54 in Mexico City on July 8, 1941.

EDUARDO J. CHIBAS.—Cuban civil engineer and former Secretary of Public Works. Born in Santiago, Cuba, and educated there and at the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, from which he was graduated in 1889. Chief engineer and general superintendent, Caribbean Manganese Company, 1893–1896; chief engineer on the exploration and survey of the road from the Pacific to the mines of the Darien Gold Mining Company, 1897; surveyor for an American syndicate of a tract on the Orinoco River, Venezuela, 1898. Took part in the Cuban War of Independence. Chief engineer and general manager of the Guantánamo Railroad, 1899–1902. Later planned the installation of the electric light and tramway systems, Santiago; organized the Guantánamo Ice and Electric Company; developed the water power of the Guaso Reservoir, the largest hydroelectric plant in Cuba. Secretary of Public Works under President de Céspedes, 1933. Author of several books on engineering. Member and former president, Cuban Society of Engineers; life member, American Society of Civil Engineers; member, American Institute of Mining and Metallurgical Engineers, Rensselaer Society of Engineers, and Sigma Xi, honorary scientific society. Died in Habana, Cuba, on August 21, at the age of 72.

CARLOS DÍAZ DUFOO.—Mexican journalist and economist. Began journalistic career in 1884. Contributed to and directed various newspapers and reviews,

including *El Ferrocarril* of Veracruz, *El Imparcial*, *La Prensa*, and *Excelsior* of Mexico City, *Revista Azul*, and *Economista Mexicano*. Served in National Chamber of Deputies, 1896–1912. Founder of chair of political economy of the Escuela Libre de Derecho, Mexico City. Member and First Vice President of the Institute of Social and Economic Studies, Mexico. Author of numerous studies on Mexican economics and finance, as well as several theatrical works. Died at the age of 80 years in Mexico City on September 5, 1941.

MARIO GARCÍA MENOCAL Y DEOP.—Cuban engineer, soldier, ex-President. Born in the Province of Matanzas. Educated in Mexico and the United States, graduating with honors from Cornell University in 1888. With his uncle, Aniceto Menocal, made the first technical studies for the proposed Nicaraguan inter-ocean canal. Served in the War of Independence under Generals Rodríguez and García. After the war, was chief of police in Habana. Elected President 1912 and 1916. Opposed Machado regime; was imprisoned in 1931; after release in 1932 went into exile. Returned to Habana in 1933, and was active in Cuban politics until his death, although he held no public office. Died in Habana on September 7, 1941, at the age of 74.

SIMON GUGGENHEIM.—United States financier and philanthropist. A leader in industry and finance, he, with his six brothers, sons of Swiss immigrant parents, built the most extensive mining and smelting empire in the world, but he used his immense wealth to benefit his fellowmen. He developed countless projects for workers in the Guggenheim mining holdings and gave lavishly and zestfully to public charity, to institutions, and to individuals.

He served as United States Senator from Colorado, 1906-13.

His largest philanthropy was the John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation, established in 1925 by him and his wife in memory of their son. The Foundation's capital fund, entirely the gift of Mr. and Mrs. Guggenheim, was \$7,500,000 at the time of his death and more was bequeathed to it in his will. Its income, in accordance with the letter of gift, is used to support "an endless succession of scholars, scientists, and artists" in their efforts to "advance human achievement." The generous fellowships, which number forty to sixty annually, are awarded to carefully selected men and women of high intellectual and personal qualifications who have already demonstrated unusual capacity for productive scholarship or unusual creative ability in the fine arts. They are available to citizens of the United States, to Canadians for work in the United States, and under the Latin American plan, to Puerto Ricans and to citizens of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, Peru, and Uruguay.

Much of Mr. Guggenheim's philanthropy was never made public, but included among his gifts were buildings for the Colorado State Normal School at Greeley, the Colorado State University at Boulder, and the Colorado State Agricultural College at Fort Collins; an annex to Mount Sinai Hospital, New York; \$500,000 to the endowment fund of Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati; and, as a gift made jointly with his brothers, a building for the National Jewish Hospital at Denver.

He died at the age of 73 years in New York City on November 2, 1941.

MOISÉS SÁENZ.—Mexican educator and diplomat. Graduated from Normal Institute of Jalapa, Veracruz, 1909; later

attended Washington and Jefferson College, Washington, Pa., received his M. A. from Columbia University, 1921, and did advanced study at the Sorbonne, Paris, 1922. His public career began with appointment as Director of Public Education in Guanajuato; later served as Director of National Preparatory School, Mexico City, 1916-20; Director of Education for the Federal District, Mexico, 1920, and of the Summer School, National University of Mexico, 1924, at which time he was also senior official of the National Department of Public Education. While Under-Secretary of Public Education, 1925-30, he founded the secondary school system of Mexico, separating prevocational education from the National Preparatory School, which was itself given college status, and played a prominent part in the development of Mexico's system of rural education. Served as Chairman of the Public Welfare Council of Mexico, 1930-31, and of the Committee on Indian Investigation of the Department of Public Education, 1932. His interest in Indian problems was very great and he carried on important research in Indian communities in Guatemala, Ecuador, and Peru, as well as in his own country. He was Secretary General of the First Inter-American Congress on Indian Life that met in Pátzcuaro, Mexico, in April 1940, and Director of the Inter-American Indian Institute created by that Congress. His diplomatic career began with his appointment as Minister to Ecuador in 1934, followed by Denmark, 1935, and Peru, 1936, where his rank was elevated to that of Ambassador in 1937. He was a member of many cultural and scientific societies, and the author of several textbooks for the study of English and many pamphlets and monographs on education and Indian affairs. Died at the age of 53 years in Lima, Peru, on October 24, 1941.

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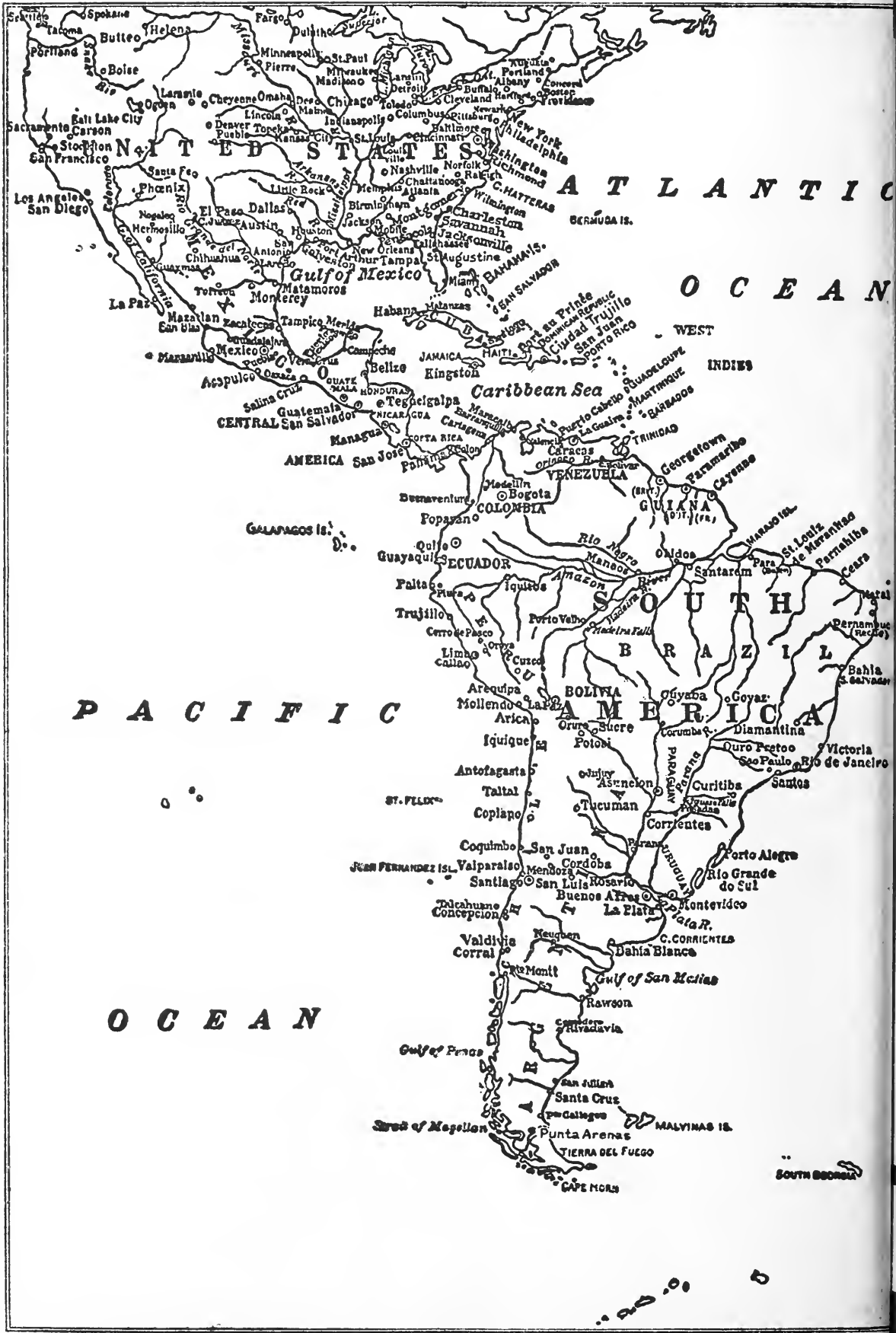
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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General*

PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

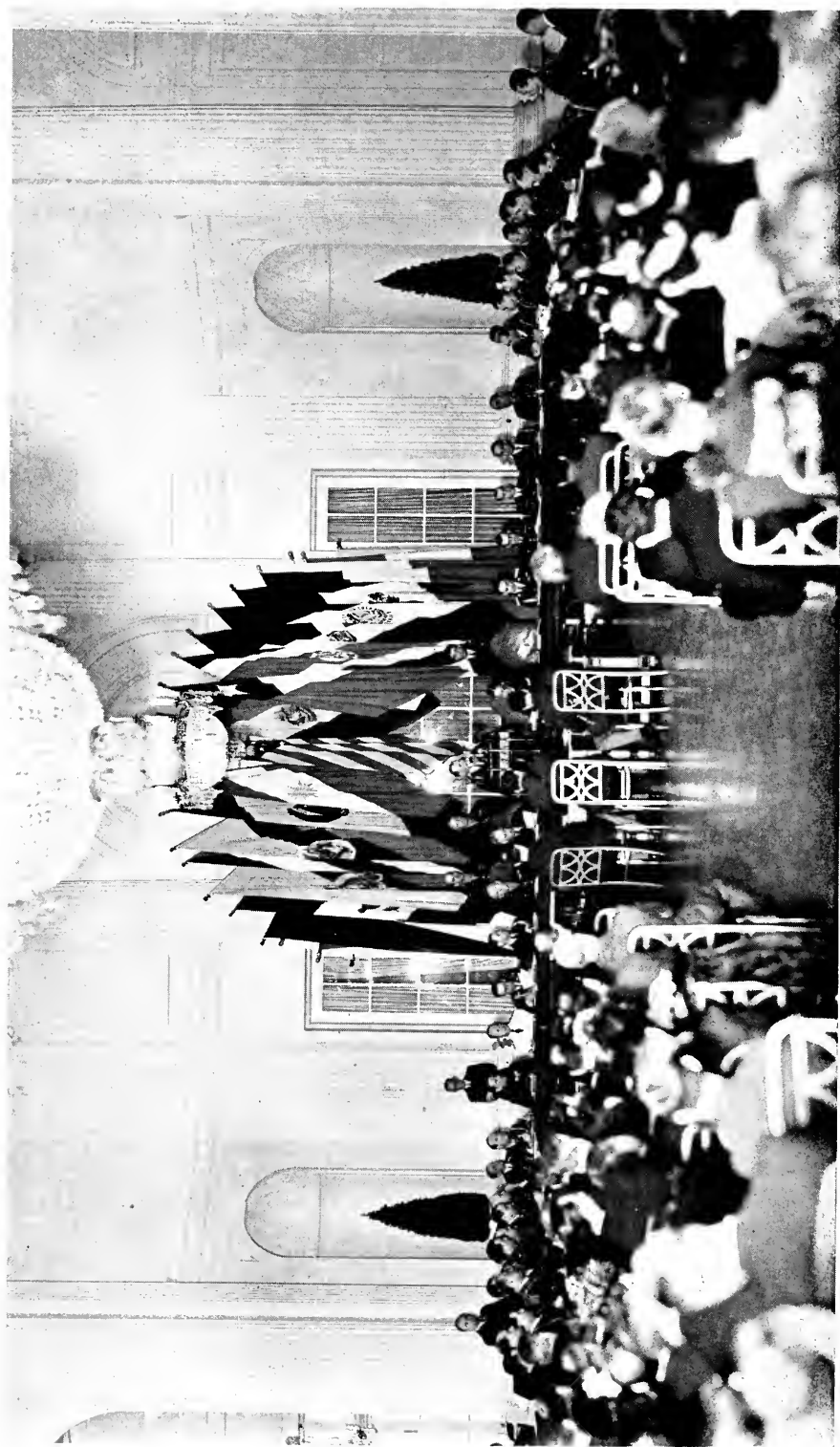


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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON





OPENING SESSION OF THE INTER-AMERICAN DEFENSE BOARD

This session, of which a full account will be given next month, was held in the Pan American Union March 30, 1942. The Board was created in compliance with a resolution of the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held at Rio de Janeiro in January.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXVI, No. 5



MAY 1942

Settlement of the Ecuador-Peru Boundary Dispute

The settlement of the more than century-old boundary dispute between Ecuador and Peru has finally been consummated. Some of the delegates to the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, feeling an earnest desire to establish peace between two neighboring countries and being keenly aware that the settlement of the controversy would be a most significant demonstration to the world of the American way of handling problems affecting the unity and tranquility of the continent, devoted themselves to the task of finding a solution that would be satisfactory to both parties. As a result of the negotiations, a Protocol was signed at Rio de Janeiro on January 29, 1942, a few hours after the Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs had officially adjourned. It was approved by the Congresses of both Ecuador and Peru on February 26, 1942. Its text is as follows:

PROTOCOL OF PEACE, FRIENDSHIP, AND BOUNDARIES

(Unofficial translation)

The Governments of Ecuador and Peru, desiring to find a solution to the boundary question which for a long period of time has separated them, and taking into consideration the offer made to them by the Governments of the United States of America, of the Argentine Republic, of the United States of Brazil, and of Chile, of their friendly services to find a prompt and honorable solution to the problem, and moved by the American spirit which prevails in the Third Consultative Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, have resolved to celebrate a Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Boundaries in the presence of the representatives of these four friendly Governments. To this end the following plenipotentiaries intervene:

For the Republic of Ecuador, Doctor Julio Tobar Donoso, Minister of Foreign Affairs; and

For the Republic of Peru, Doctor Alfredo Sol y Muro, Minister of Foreign Affairs;

Who, after having exhibited their full and respective powers on this subject and having found

them in good and due form, agree to the signing of the following protocol:

ARTICLE ONE

The Governments of Ecuador and Peru solemnly affirm their resolute purpose to maintain between the two peoples relations of peace and friendship, of understanding and of good will, and to abstain mutually from any action capable of disturbing these relations.

ARTICLE TWO

The Government of Peru will, within a period of fifteen days from this date, withdraw its military forces to the line described in Article Eight of this Protocol.

ARTICLE THREE

The United States of America, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile will cooperate, by means of military observers, in adjusting to circumstances the disoccupation and withdrawal of troops, according to the terms of the preceding Article.

ARTICLE FOUR

The military forces of the two countries will remain in their new positions until the definitive demarcation of the boundary line. In the interim, Ecuador will have only civil jurisdiction in the zones disoccupied by Peru, where the same conditions will prevail as in the zone demilitarized by the Act of Talara.

ARTICLE FIVE

The action of the United States, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile will continue until the definitive demarcation of the frontier between Ecuador and Peru has been completed. This Protocol and its execution will be under the guarantee of the four countries mentioned at the beginning of this Article.

ARTICLE SIX

Ecuador will enjoy, for the purposes of navigation on the Amazon and its northern tributaries, the same concessions enjoyed by Brazil and Colombia, in addition to those that may be agreed upon in a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation designed to facilitate free and untrammelled navigation or the aforementioned rivers.

ARTICLE SEVEN

Any doubt or disagreement that may arise in the execution of this Protocol shall be resolved by

the parties concerned, with the assistance of the representatives of the United States, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, in as short a period of time as possible.

ARTICLE EIGHT

The boundary line shall be marked by the following points:

A. In the West:

- (1) Boca de Capones on the Pacific Ocean;
- (2) The Zarumilla River and the Quebrada Balsamal or Lajas;
- (3) The Puyango or Tumbes River to the Quebrada de Cazaderos;
- (4) Cazaderos;
- (5) The Quebrada de Pilares and Alamor to the Chira River;
- (6) The Chira River upstream;
- (7) The Macará, Calvas, and Espíndola Rivers upstream to the source of the latter in the Nudo de Sabanillas;
- (8) From the Nudo de Sabanillas to the Canchis River;
- (9) Along the entire course of the Canchis River downstream;
- (10) The Chinchipe River downstream to its confluence with the San Francisco River.

B. In the East:

- (1) From the Quebrada de San Francisco, the divortium aquarum between the Zamora and Santiago Rivers, to the confluence of the Santiago with the Yaupi River;
- (2) A line to the mouth of the Bobonaza at Pastaza; the confluence of the Cunambo River with the Pintoyacu on the Tigre River;
- (3) Mouth of the Cononaco at Curaray downstream to Bellavista;
- (4) A line to the mouth of the Yasuni on the Napo River. Along the Napo downstream to the mouth of the Aguarico;
- (5) Along the latter upstream to the confluence of the Lagartococha or Zancudo River with the Aguarico;
- (6) The Lagartococha or Zancudo River upstream to its source and from there a straight line to meet the Güepi River, along the latter to its junction with the Putumayo, and then along the Putumayo upstream to the boundary of Ecuador and Colombia.

ARTICLE NINE

It is understood that the line previously described will be accepted by Ecuador and Peru for the demarcation of the frontier between the two countries by technical experts on the ground. The parties can, however, in surveying the line, consent to reciprocal concessions which they may consider convenient in order to adjust it to geographical conditions. These rectifications shall be effectuated with the collaboration of the representatives of the United States of America, the Argentine Republic, Brazil, and Chile.

The Governments of Ecuador and Peru will submit this Protocol to their respective Congresses and approval thereof should be obtained within a period of not more than thirty days.

In witness whereof, the plenipotentiaries mentioned above sign and seal the present Protocol, in two copies, in Spanish, in the city of Rio de Janeiro at one a. m. on the twenty-ninth day of January of the year Nineteen Hundred and Forty-two, under the auspices of His Excellency the President of Brazil and in the presence of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the Argentine Republic, Brazil, and Chile, and the Under-Secretary of State of the United States of America.

J. TOBAR DONOSO
ALFREDO SOLF Y MUÑOZ
E. RUIZ GUIÑAZÚ
OSWALDO ARANHA
JUAN B. ROSSETTI
SUMNER WELLES

To the American Republics, all of which have declared and frequently reiterated their desire and determination to maintain continental peace and solidarity and to settle any controversies among themselves by pacific means, the announcement of the signing of this Protocol was welcome news. The dispute had been pending for many decades. Space here does not permit an account of its entire history. It may, however, be recalled that a protocol was signed in Quito on June 21, 1924, by the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Ecuador and the Minister of Peru to that country, providing that the two Governments "will, on obtaining the assent of the Government of the United States of America, send their respective delegations

to Washington to discuss the frontier question in a friendly spirit and, should they not succeed in fixing a definite line, they will determine by agreement the zones which each of the two Parties recognizes as belonging to the other, and the zone in respect of which the President of the United States of America will be asked for an arbitral award."

For various reasons, nearly ten years elapsed before a request was made to President Franklin D. Roosevelt by the Minister of Ecuador and the Ambassador of Peru, asking him to consent to the sending of delegates of their respective countries to Washington to discuss the adjustment of their common frontier and asking him, furthermore, to serve as arbiter in the matter. The President agreed to the proposal on February 6, 1934, and on September 30, 1936, the opening session of the Ecuador-Peru Boundary Negotiations was held at the White House. There followed a series of conferences that finally terminated in September 1938 because an agreement could not be reached as to the zone that should be submitted to the arbitral decision of the President.

The controversy was still pending when, in the early months of 1941, there was news of clashes between the armed forces of the two countries. On May 8, 1941, the Governments of Argentina, Brazil, and the United States offered to Ecuador and Peru their friendly services "in furthering the prompt, equitable, and final settlement of the dispute."

Although various notes were exchanged, no conference of plenipotentiaries was arranged, and the situation remained unsettled. Then, with the consent of Ecuador and Peru, the three mediating countries sent a commission of six military observers who, together with military delegates of the two countries concerned, met in Talara,

Peru, and on October 2, 1941, signed an agreement designed to assure the cessation of hostilities and providing for the establishment of a demilitarized zone through the withdrawal of troops of both countries to specified lines. The Agreement or Act of Talara implied no recognition, present or future, on the part of either country, of any sovereignty or rights of possession in the demilitarized zone, although, as

stated in Article 7, the Act might serve as a basis for a later protocol.

The provisions of the Act of Talara were fulfilled by both countries. There the question stood when it was taken up at Rio de Janeiro and the new Protocol of Peace, Friendship, and Boundaries—a document that honors not only the two interested countries but also the cause of inter-American concord—was signed.

Governing Board Honors the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Nicaragua

ON March 11, 1942, the Governing Board met in special session for the purpose of welcoming Dr. Mariano Argüello, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Nicaragua, who was in Washington on a special mission for his Government.

In the absence of the Chairman of the Governing Board, the Vice Chairman, Dr. Diógenes Escalante, Ambassador of Venezuela, presided over the meeting and greeted the guest of honor with the following words:

YOUR EXCELLENCY:

In my capacity as Acting Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, because of the absence of the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State, I have the honor of extending to Your Excellency a cordial welcome on behalf of my colleagues and in my own name.

It is a singular pleasure to have with us the distinguished statesman who today occupies the important post of Minister of Foreign Affairs of a friendly sister Republic which has always given marked proof of its zeal for the Pan American cause and which in the dire emergency confronting our Continent was among the first to align itself in the ranks of the defenders of right and liberty.

All of us here present can testify to the devoted

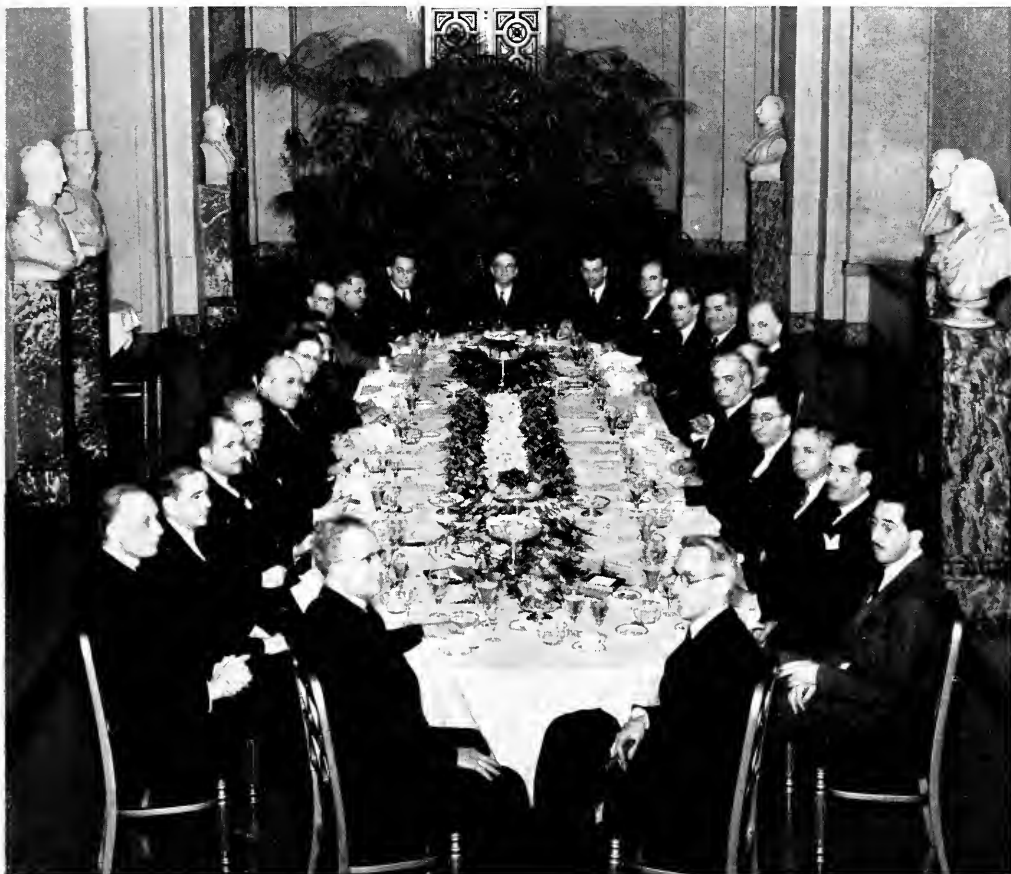
and intelligent manner in which Nicaragua has always participated in the labors of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, giving a cooperation that has been even more active, if possible, in recent times, thanks to the progressive spirit of its President, General Somoza; to the competence of its Minister of Foreign Affairs and to the talents and ability of its diplomatic representative in the United States, Dr. León DeBayle, our esteemed colleague on the Governing Board.

As we understand it, the mission that brings His Excellency Dr. Argüello to this capital is that of developing even further the already fruitful cooperation existing between the Governments and peoples of the two countries; and I am sure that my distinguished colleagues, as well as the Director General of the Pan American Union, will join me in extending to him best wishes for the most complete success of this mission, which will undoubtedly be not only a source of legitimate satisfaction on the part of Nicaragua, but also another link in the unification of the vital forces of the Western Hemisphere against the dangers threatening all of us today.

Dr. Argüello replied to the greeting of the Board chairman in these words:

MR. CHAIRMAN AND MEMBERS OF THE BOARD:

I am happy and honored to be here today at the cordial invitation of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



LUNCHEON IN HONOR OF THE MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF NICARAGUA

Dr. Argüello is seated fifth from the left, next to the Ambassador of Venezuela, Acting Chairman of the Governing Board.

It rejoices me to be your guest, for I am a firm believer in Pan Americanism, in continental solidarity and in the other principles constituting the true tenets of a religion practised in America since the time of Washington and Bolívar, a religion that lives and throbs in this temple that we so modestly call the Pan American Union, notwithstanding the ecumenical character of its doctrines and the universal applicability of its precepts concerning world peace and harmony.

The organization of the Pan American Union, first envisioned by the genius of Bolívar and later realized by the statesman Blaine, is built around the loftiest structure of beliefs and ideals in international life.

It is not appropriate to review on this occasion

the progressive development of this noble institution that has fathered the high principles we call American International Law—American not because its principles apply exclusively to this continent but because it fell to this Hemisphere to create a collective conscience, ruled by equality, justice and democracy, as a foundation for our countries.

We all know that in the slow evolutionary process of the relations between our nations the Pan American Union has been an efficient instrument, thanks to the spirit of cooperation always prevailing in the discussions of its Governing Board.

The work performed by the Pan American Union is not a mere figment of the imagination,

as charged by its opponents. On the contrary, its labors yield practical results and have once more been put to the proof in this period of human anguish when the world is suffering the onslaught of brute force. The Meeting of Consultation held by the Foreign Ministers of America at Rio de Janeiro as a consequence of the unjust aggression perpetrated against a sister nation made evident the effective correlation existing between inter-American theory and practice. The resolutions adopted at that Meeting reaffirmed the principles of continental solidarity and mutual assistance among our nations, and showed the reality of Pan Americanism.

Members of the Governing Board: I accept with pride the compliment that you pay me today because I am well aware that through me you are rendering a tribute to my country and to its President who, interpreting the sentiments of his people and his own beliefs, has in this crisis of civilization taken a strong stand on the

side of the cause that defends humanity against barbarism and despotism.

Mr. Chairman: I beg you to accept my deepest appreciation for your cordial welcome and for your generous words concerning General Somoza, the President of Nicaragua, and Dr. León De-Bayle, the diplomatic representative of my country.

I thank you for your welcome as another proof of the bonds uniting our peoples and governments, and I desire to express my sincerest good wishes for the happiness of each and every one of you as well as for that of the staff of the institution so ably headed by its distinguished Director General, Dr. Rowe.

At the close of the Board's session, Dr. Argüello, together with Señor J. J. Sánchez, Manager of the National Bank of Nicaragua, who accompanied the Minister on his mission to Washington, were guests of the Governing Board at luncheon at the Pan American Union.

Women Workers in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay

MARY CANNON

*Latin American Representative, Women's Bureau
United States Department of Labor*

[Part II]

TRENDS in the lives of the women of Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile, in their work as wage earners, and in legislation affecting them were discussed in the March 1942 issue of this BULLETIN. Schools and classes for adults, low-cost housing, and some women's organizations will be briefly described here. These are factors that contribute to women's development and at the same time are evidence of their advancement.

Classes and schools for adults

A complete report on adult education in Argentina, Uruguay, and Chile would be amazing to almost any reader. It is a thrilling experience to walk into an evening school with from 300 to 800 girls and women in attendance. (For example, the school called "Estados Unidos"—United States—in Montevideo, has 350 women enrolled in its night classes.) The thrill is still keener when the visitor is made the

center of a demonstration of friendship for the people of the United States. Sometimes the demonstration is accompanied by refreshments prepared by the cooking classes, and always by flowers and speeches.

Girls and women of all ages, with varying degrees of preparation, attend the night schools. Some are completing the first six years of elementary school, while more advanced students may devote their time to cooking, dressmaking, tailoring, weaving, drawing, art, languages, book-keeping, or stenography.

The night classes are held usually between six and nine o'clock, after office and shop hours but before dinner, the time for which is around nine o'clock. Almost everyone has tea between four and six.

Some of the adult schools are under the educational authorities; some are managed by semi-public boards, that is, self-established organizations with a government subsidy. In Chile it is the Labor Department that offers a program of technical and general education for workers. The adult schools are known by a variety of names: *Escuelas Nocturnas* (Night Schools), *Universidades Populares* (People's Universities), *Colegios Superiores* (Adult Education Schools). The instructors in many cases are the regular day school teachers; specialists in various fields come to lecture in the more advanced courses, such as those in a Colegio Superior. The art classes of a vocational school in Montevideo had the privilege of studying under a well known and loved sculptor. In one large night school in an industrial section of Buenos Aires, the teachers, inspired by their principal, gave their services for several years until they could convince the Board of Education of the need for an evening school.

Gymnasium classes for employed women have been popular. A class which was part of the municipal physical education program was visited in Montevideo; there

were 150 members. Hundreds have attended classes in gymnastics and sports offered by the Y. W. C. A. and other organizations. Various groups, such as the Catholic clubs for employed girls, women's clubs, and Catholic women's organizations have schools and special classes for employed women in addition to other educational programs. The Federation of Catholic Associations of Employed Women in Buenos Aires has a school with an enrollment of approximately 1,000. The Argentine Council of Women has 500 in its Saturday afternoon classes, and a Catholic club for employed girls in Montevideo has an attendance of 250 at Saturday afternoon classes, the enrollment reaching about 800 during the year. A government agency in Santiago has a splendid job-training program for unemployed women, and also offers classes for domestic employees. The eagerness and seriousness of these women students, young and old, promises much for the future of their countries.

Low-cost housing

All three countries—Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay—have fairly extensive low-cost housing projects, some of them initiated more than ten years ago. There are apartment buildings and many one or two-family units. The apartments and houses are attractive and comfortable, a boon to low-income families because of the comfort, absence of overcrowding, the much improved sanitary conditions in comparison with other housing, and, in most cases, the lower rent. All these advantages are greatly appreciated by women workers. There are projects for different income groups. A very attractive one in Tucumán, Argentina, was built for commercial employees within certain wage brackets.

Some of the buildings and houses impress the foreigner with the delightful

"Spanish" touches that are always expected in South American countries—red tile roofs, wrought-iron gratings over the windows, bright-colored flower pots on outside open stairways, patios and gardens. Most of the low-cost housing has been built in or near the national capitals but there is also some in interior cities. There is much interest on the part of the public in these projects and a general recognition of the need for them. More are planned for the future.

Women's organizations

With few exceptions only those organizations that are in some way concerned with women workers will be mentioned here. The list is too long to include all.

Women of the countries under discussion do not have the fondness for clubs which many North American women have; they don't go to meetings as a matter of course—they aren't "joiners." They have worked in charitable and welfare organizations for years, but these have had a definite, practical purpose. Women have managed a great charity and welfare society in Argentina (*La Sociedad de Bene-*

ficencia) for over a hundred years. This is no small job, for it involves thousands of pesos for a great many institutions such as hospitals, clinics, homes for the aged and for children, and direct assistance to individuals and families. Women of Uruguay and Chile are doing similar tasks.

Work-centered organizations

There are some associations that are definitely of and for employee women. The largest one visited during my last year's trip is the FACE, the Federation of Catholic Associations of Employed Women. This Federation in Buenos Aires is the proud possessor of a large centrally located building with a chapel, cafeteria, library, meeting rooms, and many kinds of clinics—medical, dental, optical. Most of the 19,000 members are commercial employees, with the exception of one group of seamstresses and another of teachers. The Federation, which owes its existence and progress to Monseñor de Andrea, is organized into 25 associations, each with its own corps of officers and with representation on the Executive Council. Besides providing the above-mentioned types



A PLAY CENTER FOR
CHILDREN OF EM-
PLOYED MOTHERS

This is a project of the
Argentine Federation of
Women.

Courtesy of Mary Cannon



Courtesy of Mary Cannon



TWO RESIDENTS OF LOW-COST HOUSES IN MONTEVIDEO

of service for its members, the Federation has been active in securing legislation regulating home work and other laws benefiting commercial employees.

Women, sometimes in large numbers, belong to trade unions, which are part of the national labor federations. In Chile women seem to be taking an active part as officers and members of executive committees. Unions of textile and garment workers, commercial employees, and municipal employees were visited in the three countries. In each of them the textile and garment workers' union has the largest number of women in its membership. (Around 900 women were involved in a textile strike in Buenos Aires last April.) All the unions, commercial and industrial, have worked for better legislation and have helped secure laws establishing paid vacations, Saturday afternoon closing, uniform closing at 8 o'clock during the week, retirement funds, and home-work regulations. Of course the laws are not uniform in the three countries mentioned, nor for all occupations.

Professional women have their organizations, too, or are part of associations with mixed membership. Influential fed-

erations of teachers have programs of cultural and professional value. Each country has an Association of University Women.

Women's clubs

Some of the women's clubs have committees for the study of problems and legislation affecting women, and carry on educational programs among their members or special groups. In some cases classes for employed women have been made available, either free or at a very low cost, at a convenient time. The Council of Women in Buenos Aires is a good example of such a club: it has a committee on legislation whose work resembles that of a local League of Women Voters in the United States; a committee on the protection of children, one on public health, another on motion pictures, and still another that does an extensive piece of work in sending books and magazines to school children in isolated districts of the country. The Council offers a full educational and cultural program of lectures and concerts, and maintains a school of higher education for young women; it also has Saturday afternoon classes for employed girls. In these 501 were en-

rolled last year; of this number 105 were studying English, and the next largest number (53) were learning millinery.

The Club Femenino América of Chile definitely includes the welfare of wage-earning women in its objectives, for its constitution says it has among its aims "to work for the economic freedom of women on the basis of cooperation, not competition, with men," and "to study the causes of social ills." Another Chilean women's organization of interest is the one popularly called the MEMCH, Movement for the Emancipation of the Chilean Woman. It is a cross-section organization, that is, composed of women of leisure and of business, professional, and industrial women. The Committee for Women's Suffrage became active again last year and worked hard to get public opinion and Congress to favor the bill granting national suffrage to women, a reform strongly favored by the late President Aguirre Cerda. At the same time

this group was carrying out an immediate program to educate women for citizenship. In the beginning six teachers were provided to teach classes for eight trade unions; later the plan was to be enlarged to include other groups of women.

The Argentine Federation of Women (Unión Argentina de Mujeres) was organized for the purpose of improving the status of women and the living and working conditions of wage-earning women. It has sought a practical means of carrying out its purpose by establishing a play center for young boys and girls, the children of employed mothers, in one of the crowded industrial centers. This intelligent group has been active in questions affecting the political and civil status of women. Several years ago it carried on a vigorous campaign against proposed changes in the Civil Code of Argentina which would have lessened rights women already possess. It has also worked for national suffrage for women.



Courtesy of Fermín Estrella Gutiérrez

AN EVENING CLASS IN ENGLISH

Women's organizations, as well as public school authorities, conduct evening classes in elementary and commercial subjects and in cooking, sewing, and other branches of home-making.

The women's sections of Catholic Action are active in Argentina, Chile, and Uruguay and are carrying on an intensive program of study and work on social problems. They seek to educate their members through publications, addresses, and conferences. They too sponsor classes and clubs for employed women and girls.

Some political parties have women members; thus although Uruguay is the only one of the three countries where women have national suffrage, those in other countries who belong to the parties that admit them—for instance, the Radical and Socialist Parties in Argentina—do have an indirect part in politics, since they vote for the candidate who will represent their party. The women's section of the Socialist Party in Buenos Aires years ago established day nurseries and kindergartens for children of working mothers. A great deal of the work and financing has been on a volunteer basis.

It is impossible to refrain from mentioning a women's organization in Uruguay, although it is not particularly concerned with problems of wage-earning women, because it is of so much current interest. The *Voluntarias Demócratas* (Volunteers for Democracy) were organized almost two years ago when the Minister of Defense asked all the citizens to prepare themselves to be able to help in case of an emergency. So many women volunteered for target practice that the officials called together representative women, home-makers, employed and professional women, and students, to start some kind of an organization that would use this concern and interest.

A one-year first-aid study and practice course was taught and supervised by physicians; sewing and knitting groups were begun, and an educational program about democracy was carried on through speeches, articles and the radio. More than 400 women in Montevideo are members.

Women who attended international conferences ten or more years ago will remember an indefatigable and forceful leader from Uruguay, Doctora Paulina Luisi. She has led the struggle for a good many years in her country, sometimes almost single-handed, for better conditions for women workers, for social legislation, for women's rights. Several women's organizations owe their beginnings to her.

As these notes appear on paper it would seem that all women of the countries under discussion are concerned about the welfare of women workers or about social problems. The actual picture is not quite so bright, and there, as in the United States, one hears discouragement voiced at the lack of concern, the lethargy, the disinclination towards concerted group activity.

The economic factor is assuming more and more importance in the Americas. Women are entering the economic life of their countries in increasing numbers, and they should have opportunities to contribute to economic and social development and not constitute merely a pool of exploited labor. They should be part of a system by which the standards of living for all will be raised. This is an important basis of cooperation in the program to build hemisphere solidarity.

Insecticidal Plants in the Americas

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IN the world-wide search for insecticides, men have found over 1,200 plants whose roots, leaves, flowers, wood, seeds, bark, or essential oils are said to be fatal to insects of one kind or another. To be sure, only a few of these are of commercial importance. Others might be if more were known about them. The countries of the Western Hemisphere are the natural habitat of many of these insecticidal plants. They are also, to some extent, commercial producers of all of the most important ones.

The rotenone-bearing plants of the genus *Lonchocarpus* of Central and South America, popularly known as *timbó* or *cube*, are the most important among our recent discoveries of botanical insecticides. Since ancient times the Indians have used the roots of *cube* to paralyze fish, thus making them easy to catch. A simple method of fishing by this means consists of erecting a cane barrier across a stream. At a point above the barrier a paste of *cube* root is poured into the water. By the time the fish, which are gradually overcome, have been carried by the current to the impediment they are so paralyzed by the poison that they float helplessly on the surface and are gathered as they lodge against the cane mesh. Fish killed in this manner by the *cube* or *timbó* root are edible.

To Gerardo Klinge, a Peruvian agriculturist, credit is due for the discovery that these *lonchocarpus* plants will destroy insects. In 1910 he reported, "There is a plant here called *cube* in the Quechuan dialect, which is used for killing fish. . . .

From tests I have made it produces an effective insecticide that destroys the tick."

Today it is known that the root of this tropical jungle vine contains rotenone, a substance which, while harmless to man, is one of the most effective of all insecticides. It may be used without danger as a spray or dust on garden produce and fruit. Most commercial roots contain 4 to 6 percent of this substance, but a dust containing $\frac{1}{2}$ to 1 percent is fatal to many farm pests. In recent years millions of pounds of *cube* root have been shipped from the jungle lands of the Amazon and Orinoco to protect fields, orchards, and gardens all over the world.

Among the insects that rotenone will effectively destroy are fleas, flies, lice, ticks, mites, pea and turnip aphids, cabbage worms, cucumber beetles, the Mexican bean beetle, the pea weevil, and the European corn borer. Numerous sheep and cattle-dip preparations contain rotenone. Many roach powders and fly sprays depend on it for their effectiveness. Rotenone has been used effectively to mothproof garments. Being odorless, it is highly desirable for this purpose. It is also important for military use for killing lice in those localities where insanitary living conditions may be encountered.

Farmers in the United States use nearly 3 million pounds of South American *cube* roots a year. This amount, when mixed with clay filler, will make about 15 million pounds of 1 percent rotenone dust. It is estimated that, if the roots were available,

United States farmers alone would use 20 million pounds of them, or 100 million pounds of 1 percent rotenone powder annually.

Until recently, more than half of the world's supply of rotenone came from the vine known as derris, *Derris elliptica*, which is cultivated in the tropical regions of the Far East, particularly in Malaya. Cultivation of this plant in the Western Hemisphere has only just begun. The Chinese are known to have used derris root to kill garden pests long before its value in this respect was appreciated elsewhere. With the principal supplies of derris cut off from American markets, the farmers of our American Republics will be demanding even more of our home-grown *cube*.

Already a broad production program has begun to take shape. The producers of Peru, Brazil, and Venezuela are in the

lead but signs point to larger scientifically planned production in Ecuador, Colombia, the West Indies and Central America.

When agricultural scientists learned that plants used as fish poisons often had insecticidal powers, searches were made everywhere to find other plants being used by natives to kill fish. In the United States the Indians of Texas long ago taught settlers in that region to use the root of the common leguminous weed "devil's shoestring", *Tephrosia virginiana*, for this purpose.

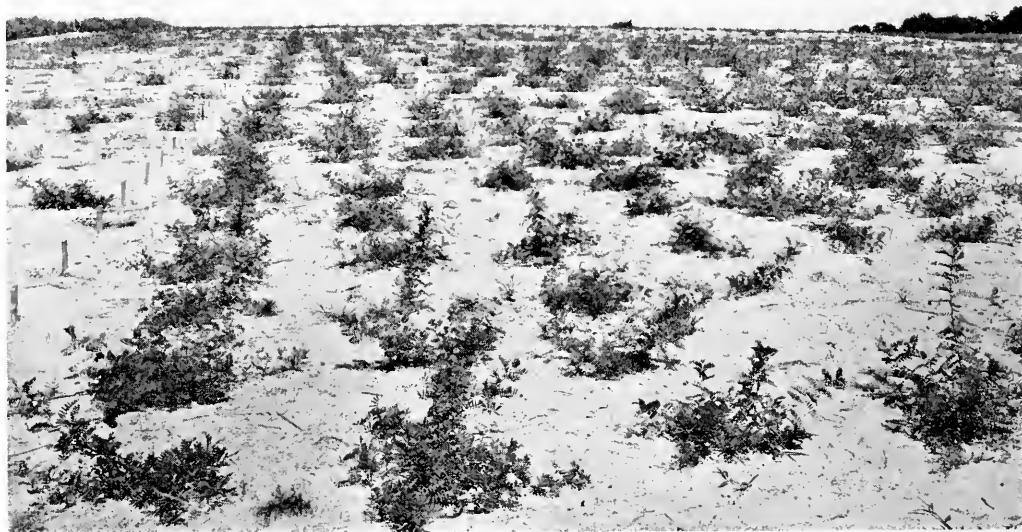
Investigation showed that, while this species is common throughout the southeastern United States, the wild plants possess a significant content of rotenone only in limited areas, particularly in Northeast Texas. Through breeding work by scientists of the United States Department of Agriculture a strain of tephrosia



Courtesy of A. C. Smith

LONCHOCARPUS PLANTS IN PERU

The roots of this genus yield rotenone which, while harmless to man, is one of the most effective of all insecticides.



Photograph by Bureau of Plant Industry, U. S. D. A.

AN EXPERIMENTAL PLANTING OF DEVIL'S SHOESTRING

A strain of this weed now being developed by the United States Department of Agriculture promises to yield a satisfactory amount of rotenone.

is being developed which promises to provide material satisfactory for insecticidal use. If it is found that such a type retains this quality when grown under a variety of conditions, it may eventually become a satisfactory crop on poor sandy lands in the southern States. Since tephrosia is an excellent soil cover it will no doubt be welcomed by farmers in many countries of the hemisphere as a profitable crop to raise on easily erodible land, especially as it will grow well under a wide variety of climatic conditions.

Before the discovery of rotenone, perhaps the best known plant insecticide was nicotine, which is obtained from another Western Hemisphere native, the popular tobacco plant, *Nicotiana tabacum*. Although nicotine is a powerful poison to man and animals even in small quantities,

it is a safe insecticide for food crops because of the minute amounts necessary to destroy plant parasites. It does not accumulate in the human body as do lead and arsenic compounds, which are dangerous for that reason.

The production of nicotine insecticides is an important by-product industry in the principal tobacco-growing regions of the Americas. Nicotine is one of the best contact poisons. In solutions as weak as 1/10 of 1 percent, it kills soft-bodied insects such as aphids. But since it is soluble in water, it washes off the leaves of plants too quickly to afford the best protection against the chewing pests for which rotenone is so effective. Nicotine is obtained by steam distillation of low-grade leaf and scrap tobacco. The strength of this insecticide is illustrated by the fact that greenhouses



Photograph by Bureau of Plant Industry, U. S. D. A.

MACHINE HARVESTING OF PYRETHRUM FLOWERS IN MARYLAND

Pyrethrum will probably become an important crop in the Americas because of the invention of this harvester. Japan has been the chief supplier of pyrethrum.

may be fumigated by applying nicotine or nicotine sulphate to steam pipes or some other heated surface. A less efficient method of placing moistened tobacco leaves on hot pipes was used at one time.

One of the most promising of the plant-insecticide crops is pyrethrum; it has provoked interest throughout the hemisphere. This member of the genus *Chrysanthemum* is a native of Yugoslavia and Iran. In the latter country it was valued for its insecticidal properties several centuries ago. Today it is the most common material used in household insect sprays. Introduced into Japan in 1881, its cultivation was increased until that country virtually monopolized the production of this important plant, the dried flowers of which contain the valuable insecticide. Within the past decade Brazil and the British

Colony of Kenya in Africa have become important sources of the world's supply.

In spite of increased plantings of this valuable crop, production has not kept pace with world demands. Until recently it has been necessary to pick the tiny flowers one at a time by hand because there was no mechanical means of separating them from the stalks. Many farmers in the Americas whose land is suitable for this crop did not plant pyrethrum because they could not compete with the cheap labor of Japan and Africa. Skilled pickers are able to gather the equivalent of only 8 to 20 pounds of dry flowers a day. A single acre will produce between 700 and 1000 pounds of dried flowers annually for about 5 or 6 years.

In 1940 agricultural engineers and specialists of the United States Depart-

ment of Agriculture interested in the crop reported the development of a pyrethrum-flower harvesting machine, which they believe will prove practical under most field conditions and consequently encourage a larger and more economical production of the plant. Today, several of the American Republics, including Brazil, Mexico, Chile and Peru, are looking forward to establishing larger acreages of this crop.

The development of pyrethrum plantations in the Americas has a future as promising as that of the rotenone-bearing plants. The United States alone imported in recent years an average of 15 million pounds annually. If the cost of production can be cut, a considerable increase in the use of pyrethrum dusts on field crops will no doubt follow.

One of the most promising of the new plant insecticides is anabasine, which has properties similar to those of nicotine. Since it is not as volatile, it cannot replace nicotine as a fumigant. It shows promise, however, of being more effective than the latter as a contact poison on aphids.

The most important sources of anabasine are the tree tobacco plant, *Nicotiana glauca*, a native of Argentina and Uruguay, and the Russian shrub *Anabasis aphylla*, which is related to the American tumbleweed and lamb's-quarters. Although *Nicotiana glauca* is a native of South America it is very much at home in Mexico and in the southwestern United States.

The discovery of anabasine is less than 15 years old. It was synthesized by chemists in the United States at about the same time it was discovered in *Anabasis aphylla*. Commercial exploitation of this valuable insecticide is somewhat limited in the Western Hemisphere by a deficit of known exploitable quantities of the wild plants containing it. That situation is not expected to persist in view of anabasine's

special importance. Plant explorers will no doubt find new sources in the very near future.

The development of the plant-insecticide industry is in its infancy. A review of the expansion of rotenone and pyrethrum plantings shows that the greatest increase has taken place in the last 10 to 20 years. The exploitation of anabasine has only begun. The discovery, in recent years, of one plant after another that has commercial insecticidal value suggests only one conclusion: Today there must still remain in Latin America a significant number of insecticidal plants which are as yet unknown in commercial channels. These may become as important as any we now have. No doubt many will be found that will be superior for specific uses.

The discovery of these plants, which is sure to come in time, will be vital to the agricultural programs of our American Republics. Faced with surpluses of many of our present crops, we must place more and more emphasis on such products as insecticides and certain fibers, oils, spices, and drugs. Our hemisphere could use far more of these than we now produce.

The oil of citronella, *cymbopogon nardus*, is a common household insect repellent. Used in skin ointments it offers protection against mosquitoes and other insects. Strangely enough, although the oil itself repels insects, one of its constituents, geraniol, is used to lure Japanese beetles into insect traps.

In Haiti the pepper *Piper aduncum* is used to discourage ants from pillaging seed-beds and *Picramnia pentandra* is used as a general insecticide. The people of that country employ the roots of the vetiver plant, *Vetiveria zizanioides*, in wardrobes to discourage clothes moths which, it is claimed there, are allergic to its delicate aroma. Vetiver root is also used in Haiti to destroy plant lice and bedbugs.

The cucaracha herb, *Haplophyton cimidum*, of Mexico and Guatemala is a promising insecticidal plant. As yet it is of value only in local village commerce, where it is bartered in the market places in small amounts. Ground to a powder it is effective in destroying head lice and cockroaches, from which it receives its common name.

Just as cedar-wood chests are used for the storage of valuable clothing to protect it from the moths and other destructive insects, so, too, are boxes made of West Indian quassia wood, *Picrasma excelsa*, used for that purpose. No insect can live in boxes made of the remarkable lumber of this tree. Good fly paper can be made of blotting paper soaked in a sugared extract of that wood. An insecticide made from an infusion of quassia chips is sometimes used to protect the hop plant.

Common turpentine is frequently employed to destroy insect eggs. The powdered seed of the flower larkspur of the genus *Delphinium* is used to destroy head lice and certain garden worms.

The list of lesser known insecticides used in the Americas is practically inexhaustible. Just a suggestion of this vast undeveloped field is brought to our attention by occasional reports. Nicaraguans are said to use as insecticides: *Petiveria alliacea*, "pringamoza," of the *Euphorbiaceae* family, and "zorrillo" of the *Fitolacaceae* family. In Venezuela rosemary, *Rosmarinus officinalis*, bay-rum oil of *Pimenta acris*, and oil of eucalyptus from trees of the genus *Eucalyptus* are all common insecticides. The giant ants, "bibijaguas," of Cuba are reported to be repelled by the *Datura arborea*, which grows in that country.

These are only a few of the hundreds of plants used as insecticides in isolated communities throughout the length and breadth of our hemisphere. Most of these will never be of commercial importance but every year our entomological research centers, such as that of the United States Department of Agriculture at Beltsville, Maryland, receive from remote places plant specimens which show interesting promise.

Scientists at Beltsville conduct quantitative tests with measured amounts of each new insecticide sent to them. To test contact poisons they admit counted numbers of insects into sealed chambers, where they are subjected to sprays of the new product. After a standard period of time, fresh air is admitted to the cage and the living and dead insects counted to determine the effectiveness of the poison. Chewing pests are fed carefully measured amounts of promising stomach poisons and the results compared with those obtained from other poisons of known usefulness.

Scientists in the fields and laboratories of the Western Hemisphere are daily adding to our knowledge of how to combat the insects which destroy our crops and undermine our health. That we have much to learn is frequently indicated by the reports of observant travelers. It has been said the Chunchos Indians of Peru use a paint to cover their faces and bodies, not for decorative or ceremonial purposes but because it repels insects. Possibly those persons who labor in the malarial regions of our republics will some day be better protected by repellents or insecticides as yet unknown to us than by any we now have.

Portinari

From Brodowski to the Library of Congress

MARIO PEDROSA
Editorial Division, Pan American Union

[Part II]

THE walls of the Hispanic Foundation at the Library of Congress in Washington gave Portinari the opportunity for still bolder achievement in mural painting than he had hitherto reached. There he worked on panels in dry fresco. The artist, away from his own country, away from the familiar atmosphere of his native land, felt somewhat uprooted, more at liberty to give free rein to his own brand of virtuosity, his inner impulses, his inspiration, without opposition or supervision. At no other period in his mural painting—this is evident at the first glance—did he feel more untrammelled, less shackled, readier to execute the most daring technical gymnastics and the most violent distortions. The Hispanic Foundation compositions, completed last January, were obviously created with a deep inner sense of liberty.

In these panels, dedicated to America and sponsored by the Governments of Brazil and the United States, Portinari portrays the great deeds of the Portuguese and the Spaniards in the New World. The new land is bursting with tropical exuberance—wild beasts, violently red flowers, deep blue rivers, mighty trees. Over both land and ocean blow epic winds, bringing either the strong and invigorating scent of salt water from the open sea, or the burning breath of the un-

tamed land, with its animals, men, forests, to be dispersed over the ocean. All this is told, in strong and evocative language, in the panels entitled *The Discovery of the Lands* and *The Entry into the Forests*. The other two, *The Teaching of the Indians* and *The Mining of Gold*, speak of different aspects of Hispanic American colonization; they have another inner compulsion, and their rhythm is due to other evocations and other mysteries.

For Portinari, a fresco or a mural painting is always a moment of synthesis in the course of his creative evolution. With each new wall that he is to cover, he seems to have reached the climax, to be availing himself of all his accumulated experience; but it proves to be only a temporary pause, after which he resumes his onward march. In these latest panels the artist's underlying design is no longer the definition of abstract forms, but the reduction of forms to creative abstraction. His aim is no longer purely constructivist in the sense of montage or of structure; his purpose is now free creation. This is his phase of creative liberation, the conversion of the plastic into the abstract within the framework of pictorial material.

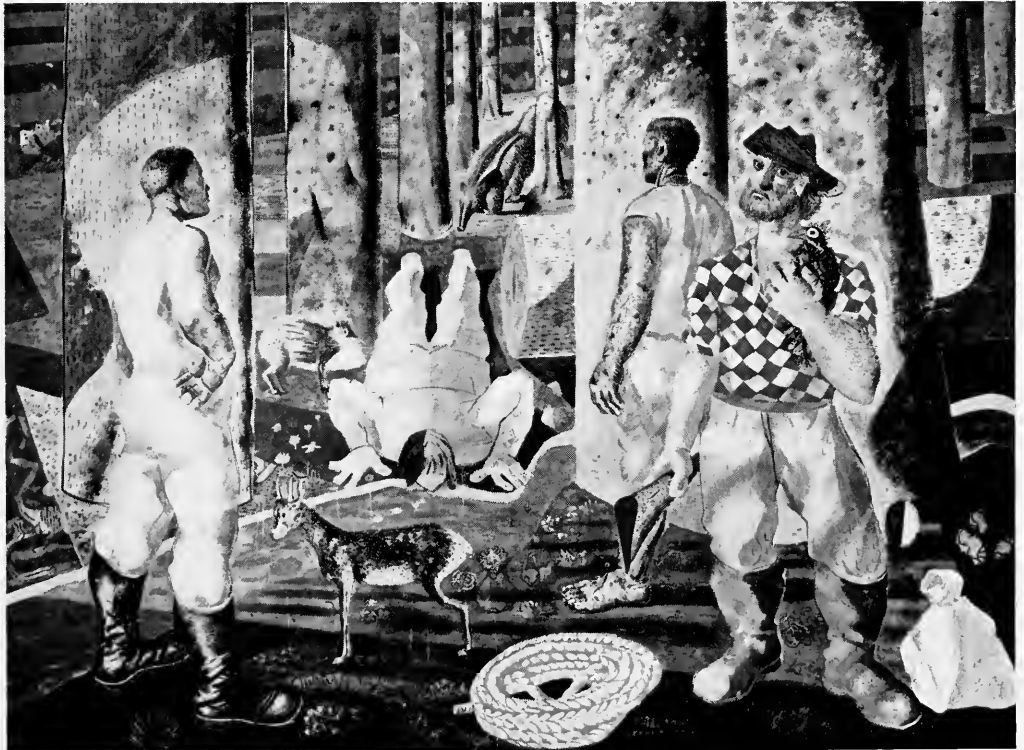
By processes far removed from the application of any formula, he tends, it might be said, to debunk his icons, his images, his landscapes, in an escape from external demands, whether national or otherwise, of environment and of time,

Part I, giving a biography of the painter and describing his earlier work, appeared in the BULLETIN for April 1942.

and in so doing he strips the forms of his human beings of objectivity; he cuts off the fingers of his Negroes; intensifies the violent clash of contrasts; multiplies geometric forms in a frenzy of abstraction; puts discordant colors side by side; destroys perspective, and merges planes, even sacrificing the balance of the composition or conventional representation—all this in exchange for a glimpse of universality. He deranges his world and his symbols and does not hesitate to disturb the primary harmony if, by a succession of dissonant chords, he can achieve a more profound and recondite harmony. It is indeed a long way from the panels at the New York World's Fair, which themselves were far removed from the Rio de Janeiro

murals, to those at the Library of Congress.

Of all the panels in the Hispanic Foundation, the one unquestionably closest to its predecessors, especially the Rio de Janeiro murals, is *The Entrance into the Forest*. Here the figures are separated by the trunks of huge trees that disappear in the heights, between shadows that fall deep into the forest background and the warm tones of the red earth carpeted with scarlet flowers, among which stand hairy beasts. The vertical thrust of the trees is cut off abruptly to intensify the horizontal depth of the earth. A modeled patch of blue cuts across almost the whole foreground, which glows with the heat of the burning earth and with vivid flowers like the cactus. This cold tone, with the



Courtesy of the Hispanic Foundation

"THE ENTRANCE INTO THE FOREST"

Fresco in the Hispanic Foundation, Library of Congress, Washington.

abrupt change from flaming red to celestial blue, sets the stage for the huge figure outstretched on the earth and extending toward the background of the picture. The recession of magnificent decorative tree trunks gives still greater depth to the canvas behind the figure of the thirsty pioneer drinking from the river, while a realistic anteater peers out from behind a tree. In the right foreground, within the area of glowing color, a truculent bearded pioneer, who wears a startling red-checked shirt, holds in one hand a musket and with the other clasps to his chest, like a glittering decoration, a strange bird, something between an owl and a woodpecker. To the left another figure, painted in gray tones and seen in profile, balances the sturdy hero on the right. Standing back to back with the latter, in the second plane, is yet another figure, also in tones of gray. The details of this impressive composition—such as the hands and the stock of the musket—are thrilling, and arrest the eye. The warm tones of the foreground are tempered by the cold, gloomy, and fugitive greens of the woods but accentuate, by the somber atmosphere that they create and by contrast with the background, the majestic static quality of the whole composition. Even the wild animals, alive and dangerous—armadillo, anteater, or capybara—whose roughness is repulsive to the spectator, are immobile, notwithstanding their frightened, sparkling eyes. The whole scene has great decorative force.

The contrast between *The Entrance into the Forest* and its companion panel, *The Discovery of the Lands*, is great. The former is static, the latter sheds an aura of joy, giving forth the breath of the great salt winds blowing from the open sea. White, gray, blue, green, brown, red—within this chromatic scale the artist has built the New World. Between one passage, one

splash of color, and the next there is light, much light, space, unimpeded winds, veering and blowing from all four corners of the world. A sinuous vertical line in the middle of the painting is formed by a heavy undulating cable hanging from above; the descending diagonal curve of the white sail, flowing from left to right, cuts awkwardly across the vertical. A powerful figure in gray, white, and blue is pulling on the greasy rope. Just to his right a similar figure, back to, counter-balances the first; he also is tugging on a rope. To give an added sense of the rigging, a rope ladder, cut by the rungs, hangs parallel to the cables, swaying with the same undulating rhythm. The rhythm of the diagonal lines, the movement of the figures in the foreground and middle distance, and the very texture of the greasy rigging prevent this indecisive vertical from becoming the dominant line in the composition. The direction of the movement is decidedly downward, obeying the laws of gravitation and signifying that in this picture there is nothing pompous, that it is not meant to be a conventional historical scene. The upraised arms of the men in the background reinforce the vertical lines, as does the atmospheric transparency of the glimpse of the sea in the upper lefthand corner. But the central figures, vibrant in their exuberant plasticity, are more powerful.

It is not the surface heterogeneousness of the painting that gives motion to the figures, for they have a movement of their own, strong and slow. On the contrary, it is the geometric forms of the planes and the triangular sail that attenuate, with their static yet vibrant quality, the heavy rhythm of the masses in the foreground and in the middle distance. The panel is divided into three parts. The huge white sail is a triangle that fills the upper third of the panel. Its hypotenuse cuts the

painting diagonally, at the right meeting the bulwarks of the vessel, which in turn divide the foreground. Within the angle thus formed, as within a great focus of light directed toward the land, is the great second plane, where the toiling sailors are crowded together on the deck of the caravel. Everything occurs in this central triangle. The rest of the surface is left to

the green foreground that frames the vessel's gray keel.

The subject of this painting is in itself dangerously seductive to a less wary painter. The natural beauty of marine scenes, of the caravels which romantic prints have conventionalized, is a trap lying in wait for the unwary artist, a dangerous invitation to be condescending. Portinari



Courtesy of the Hispanic Foundation

"THE DISCOVERY OF THE LANDS"

Fresco in the Hispanic Foundation, Library of Congress, Washington.



Courtesy of the Hispanic Foundation

"THE TEACHING OF THE INDIANS"

Fresco in the Hispanic Foundation, Library of Congress, Washington.

makes no concession to historical conventions; in his painting there are no great captains, no graceful caravels. Of the sea, with its ever-changing beauty, of the facile topic of the discovery of the New World, rich as it is in literary overtones, the artist has given only a fleeting glimpse, in the triangle occupying the left upper

corner of the panel. And he has done this in a masterly manner. The edge of the great sail and the bulwarks in the background tear off a bit of space—dazzling blue, green, white—which shows, as though a curtain had been raised, a little piece of the New World, in an accurate seascape with its rolling waves, its white-



Courtesy of the Hispanic Foundation

"THE MINING OF GOLD"

Fresco in the Hispanic Foundation, Library of Congress, Washington.

caps, its poetic sails, its clear blue sky, et cetera. That tiny open space in the surface of the panel is extraordinarily suggestive of a stage setting, to be seen from the caravel itself. And it is in fact a stage setting, and a vivid one, this vision of a new and unknown land. Thus Portinari's audacious use of the conventional, of literary inspira-

tion, is in impressive contrast to the serious and substantial plasticity of matter in the foreground figures and the unconventional structure of the whole composition.

The entire painting is permeated with vigor and an arresting freshness. The plastic distortion of the cyclopean feet shows them as though in a close-up. The

plastic force of the figures is set off by the languid rhythm of the pendulous ropes. One seems to hear, in the cadence of mass and line, the rhythm of a sea-chantey sung by the sailors as they work in unison. Everything tends to center attention on their figures, to attest that the credit of the Discovery belongs to them.

In *The Teaching of the Indians* plastic monumentality is given special emphasis. Here the figures, instead of being detached, merge into a solid and static group in the middle of the panel; the composition is one that the artist used in 1936, in an oil painting of six figures. Everything serves to centralize and unite, in a great integrating movement, the central figures. The warm earth, in reddish-brown tones, has almost the same burning and hostile roughness as in the panel of *The Entrance into the Forest*. The earth is, first of all, thorny, as is indicated by the missionaries' huge feet, bare and misshapen. Extending at either side, in a great brown expanse that spreads like oil over the vast surface of the panel, the earth ends in the background at a stockade, which divides it from the blue of the sea and the sky. Behind the figures, the space is bathed in light, with a cow spotted in gray and green gazing wonderingly at the scene in the foreground and suggesting silence before the incomprehensible; within this space another apostle, little more than a blur of gray, leads by the hand an Indian child in blue. A third cool note is the blue mortar, the only utensil in the vast area, but warm tones reverberate through the luminosity of the field. There is a grave intensity in the play of light and shade. The luminous field surrounding the figures in the central group immobilizes them, investing them with a strange solemnity, while the warm splashes of earth tones enhance the values of the rich colors in which the figures are modeled.

Their shadows flow like an ectoplasm extending from the bottom of the missionary's gown to the outspread hand of the standing figure behind him and then upward to his tonsure, and are continued along the arm of the other Indian woman that is upraised to the basket she is carrying on her head. These dark tones surround as with a great protecting halo the figure of the seated Indian woman, listening attentively to the preaching of the Jesuit. Everything converges upon her or tends to involve her. The roughly indicated face of the priest is illuminated, as is the space, the passage, between one form and another. To the right, a single imposing figure of a Jesuit with a child in his arms recalls a picture in the Catholic hagiology. The side of this figure nearest the central group is in shadow, contrary to the direction of light falling on the group. This impressive contrast gives an unnatural or supernatural clarity to the whole scene.

The entire panel is animated by an enveloping circular movement flowing from right to left. This direction is emphasized not only by the circular outline of the inner space, but also by the canoes beached in the blue background and almost impelled, by the curve of the arc that frames the panel, to join the revolving movement. That extraordinary feeling of rotation, which is in the air, which is all-pervasive—not inherent in things themselves—is broken only by the large upright figure of the padre with the child at the left, an extraneous and dramatic vertical. Without this group, the composition would perhaps lose in balance, resolving itself into a single monotonous movement in which the solemn static quality, the mysterious force of religious conversion, would be lost.

The Mining of Gold is unquestionably the most unconstrained and the most auda-

cious of the four panels. This is Portinari's most daring experiment in his evolution as a painter. The anti-naturalistic contrast of light and color is achieved by taking every liberty. The secret of the composition lies in the fact that apparently it has no composition. The figures, however, are arranged in the form of a cross, or in an *X*, which gives to all of them an almost cosmic structural unity and, at the same time, an extraordinary disintegrating force, since it permits a rotary movement that projects the figures in all directions. In the same way, strong dissonances dominate the cacophony that threatens to erupt through the contrast between black and white, between red and blue.

The subject matter has little to do with the painting, and apart from structural and abstract considerations, its inner balance is not immediately apparent. The dominant color is blue, blue, and more blue, with unpredictable sequences of gray, white, red, green, black, and brown. From the deep blue foreground is echoed an infinity of blue tones, becoming ever lighter and more luminous as they approach the top of the picture, and thus creating an increasing sense of distance. The quality of the color is extraordinarily vibrant, and the interplay of the translucent little fishes, whether modelled or merely outlined, makes it pulsate still more intensely. In the background, at the top, the sky is blended of the same gamut of blues, toned down by white. In other works, to make the plastic figures stand out in sharper relief, Portinari frequently brutalized the painting, scorning accessories or background. In this picture, he leaves the figures in the center of the panel, and loses himself in the monastic subtleties of the blue tones of the water.

The dominant blue is counterbalanced by the green inside the boat, by the red in the shirt of one prospector, by the gray,

black, and white of the figures. But it is the blue that envelops the aggressiveness of the dissimilar figures, done in garish or somber or neutral tones, in a heartwarming sweetness.

The triangular noses, the clothing—plaid or with black, white, and red checks—mitigate the anecdotal and realistic character of the plastic figures of the Negroes with huge hands, transforming them into colors, into masses, making them other than flesh and blood.

Attention is focused on one figure in the composition: the man in the red-checked shirt in the right foreground, who is clutching a sieve. In the background, the figure in the black and white plaid balances him; between the two, the gray of the man bending over the side of the boat is, in its neutral hue, the center of gravity of the whole outward movement that is inherent in the star-shaped composition. The red checks in the foreground are almost the only warm tones in the whole panel. They conflict, unquestionably, with the general harmony, the transparency and soft echoes of the cold tones in a minor key. Without these gaudy reds the whole atmosphere would be different: placid and homogeneous. Many would prefer it that way. These colors are obviously a difficult discord, a contrast that hurts. But they belong at least to the inner logic, if not to the intuitive method, of the composition. By violating the laws of perfect harmony, the artist restores plastic truth to the drama he is portraying—the diabolical excitement of the figures, possessed by a thirst for gold. Here we have men possessed, almost maniacal, immersed in the great sweetness of the atmosphere, so different and so far removed from the thrill and excitement of mechanized puppets, the slaves both of gold and of society.

Without that red and its derivatives,

even the outrageous violence of the gestures—the spread hands, the shortened fingers, the arms brandishing a horrifying brown blot—would not be jarring; it would be submerged in the irresistible melody of the blues and grays and in the intangible web of their nuances. The composition would be cloying and not dramatically

plastic. In its actual form, thanks to that discord, what is after all the secondary, although specific purpose of mural painting—to express a reality, objective or subjective—is restored, while at the same time the artist is prevented from falling into the banality of conventional description, and keeps to the realm of pure creation.

A Coffee Planter in Costa Rica

J. DODDRIDGE PEET

ARTHUR RUHL, in his book *The Central Americans*, called his chapter on one republic "Nice Little Costa Rica"; he chose an excellent title, for it is a dear, nice, little country. Please do not confuse Costa Rica with Puerto Rico, the island in the Caribbean sea. Costa Rica is the first country north of the republic of Panama.

Coffee is the mainstay of Costa Rican economy. For many years I owned a coffee plantation in that country, and readers of the BULLETIN may be interested in some details of life on such an estate, especially how coffee is grown, cultivated, and prepared for export. As thousands of pages have been written by a great many experts on that most interesting subject, and as my space here is limited, I shall be able to give only a running story of what has to be done to get that delicious little bean ready for your morning cup.

First, I want to tell something of the construction of the cherry, as the fruit of the coffee tree is sometimes called because of its color and size when ripe. There are two beans in every cherry, each encased in a very fine silky skin; over that is a parchment covering, somewhat like a peanut

shell, only very thin and smooth, which in turn is protected by a sweetish glutinous pulp; and then comes a thick skin which, when the fruit is ripe, is red. The flat sides of the two beans are face to face, leaving the rounded sides to give shape to the fruit.

When a new planting has been decided upon, the first step is to collect the seeds. An expert goes out to pick the ripest and best fruit from the lower branches. The berries are pulped by squeezing them between the fingers and the two beans pop out—these are the seeds. First they must be left to dry in the shade. The bed is then prepared; one three feet wide and some ten feet long will hold about ten thousand trees. The seeds are sown thickly over the soft earth and covered by about half an inch of fine soil, which in turn is covered by banana leaves weighted down by sticks to keep the wind from blowing them off. In about forty days the beans begin to sprout, each little bean on a thin stem about the size of the lead in a pencil. A coldframe is then built over the seedlings to keep the sun from burning them. In about a week they are strong



Courtesy of J. D. Peet

HEAVILY-LADEN COFFEE TREES

The ripe fruit resembles a small red cherry in color and size. The banana plant is grown to shade the coffee.

enough to be transplanted to the nursery, where they are set out in a staggered formation about six inches apart. In another week the parchment covering splits and drops off and two lovely little green leaves appear, the beginning of the coffee tree. In about ten months the plants develop into small bushes about three feet high. They are dug out carefully so that the earth does not fall away from the roots, wrapped in large leaves, and taken to their permanent place in the coffee orchard, where again they are planted in a staggered formation, this time about eight feet apart.

The bush by this time has four or five lateral branches growing straight out from the main stem. It is now pruned by cutting back the main stem to about two feet above the ground at a junction of two lateral branches, which are also cut to

form a cross. The two shoots that appear after this pruning are left to grow to a length of about a yard and a half and then pruned again, and so on until the tree is formed. It takes approximately four years before the trees bear the first small harvest.

The orchard has to be cultivated about four times a year by spading. Every year the trees must be pruned and shaped, and two or three times a year the excess growth (suckers) must be cut off. In fact, one is never idle, for fertilizing and spraying keep one constantly on the job; there is always something of interest to attend to, and with proper care the trees will smile and produce.

Now the picking season arrives; whole families work at the task. The pickers deliver the berries to an oxcart, which carries them to the mill. There the coffee is washed into a pulping machine and then



Courtesy of J. D. Peet

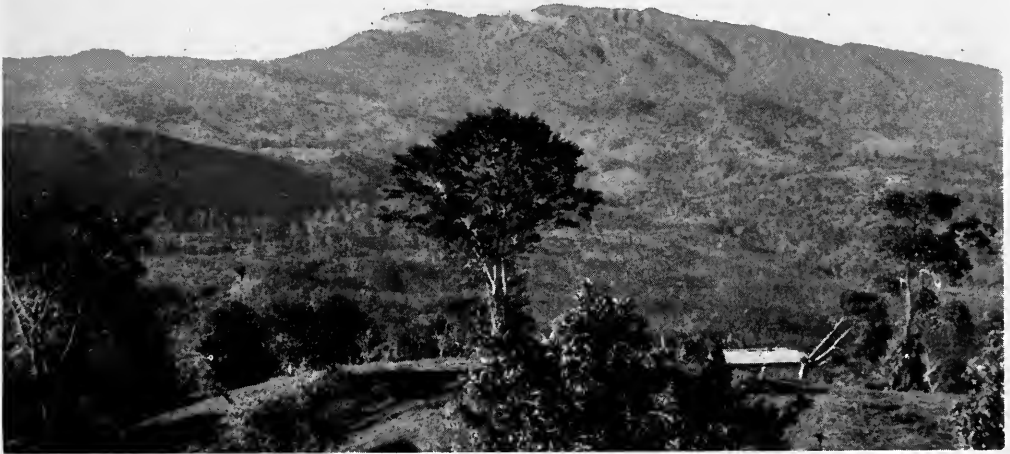
THE AUTHOR'S HOUSE IN COSTA RICA

goes to a fermenting tank, where the sweetish glutinous substance is fermented off. This operation takes twenty-four hours or more, according to the condition of the atmosphere. The man in charge must be an expert to determine just when the proper fermentation has been reached, for too little or not enough will affect the flavor of the bean. Then the coffee is sent into a washing channel with a flowing stream of clear clean water, and all of the sticky substance is washed off. After that the beans go to the dryer. This process also needs expert handling, for the coffee can be ruined by over- or under-drying. The beans proceed through a husking machine and then through a grader to separate them according to size. Next, a polishing machine takes off the silky skin and polishes the beans, which are of a greenish blue color. After being hand-picked to remove any imperfect ones, they finally are bagged and exported to the roasters, who prepare them for that

delicious cup of coffee to which we all look forward every morning.

On the Pacific side of Costa Rica there are regular dry and wet seasons and for that reason the coffee trees flower practically all at once, giving one main harvest for the year. On the Atlantic side, however, where my farm was situated, there are no regular seasons and a great deal of rain. Consequently the coffee trees are continually flowering, and we get larger crops. There was hardly a day during the year that I could not take a visitor through my coffee plantation and show him the entire history from the bud through the full flower, the dry flower, and the tiny fruit forming, all the way to a fully ripe coffee cherry.

My farm was located on a mountain opposite the extinct volcano of Turrialba, about eleven thousand feet in elevation. My dwelling was four thousand feet above sea level. The climate was wonderful, never very cold, never very hot. Eighty



Courtesy of J. D. Peet

A VIEW OF TURRIALBA FROM THE PLANTER'S HOUSE

degrees in my living room would mark a very warm day, the average being about seventy-five. The nights were always cold enough for one to sleep under blankets; a sweater was necessary every morning and evening, but during the day one could go about in shirt sleeves.

Work began at six o'clock, so the maxim of early to bed and early to rise applied. About nine o'clock would be bedtime and by five o'clock I would be up and doing; shortly after six my man would have a horse saddled and I would be off to ride the farm or to go to one of the neighboring towns, Turrialba and Juan Viñas, on business. No matter where I rode, the views up the different valleys and across to the neighboring mountains were magnificent.

For the last eight years I was my own housekeeper. I had an old Indian woman for a cook; when I left she had been with me for fifteen years. She could neither read nor write, but once I had drilled a

recipe into her head she seldom forgot it. Electricity for light and refrigeration made things easy.

I shall never forget the sunrises. They were gorgeously beautiful. From my house we looked across the valley and could see the first rays of the sun flick the barren top of old Turrialba. As we watched, it would seem as though a curtain were being pulled down very slowly, and as the sun rose and the curtain receded, the whole scene—forests with their many-hued trees, green pastures, fields on which many different crops were cultivated, coffee orchards—would become a perfect riot of color. Then the sun would be up and the show would be over for that day. My guests would stand entranced and then say, "It was well worth while getting up to see that; you are living on the top of the world."

"Nice little Costa Rica!" So it is, and impressive in its dignified simplicity. The President of the Republic needs no armed

bodyguard. He is quite often seen strolling with a few friends down the central avenue of San José for luncheon or on some other mission. I remember some time ago I went down to the port of Limón with my niece and two nephews to see them off for New York. We were sitting at a sidewalk table in front of a café. An ordinary taxi drove up and out got three gentlemen. I went to greet one of them, told him whom I had with me, and asked if I might introduce them to him. He came over to our table and chatted for a short time in perfect English before excusing himself, saying that he was delighted to have met them and that they would always be welcome in Costa Rica. "Who is that dear old gentleman?" my family inquired. "Señor don Cleto González Víquez, the President of Costa Rica," I replied.

I remember another occasion, this time in San José, the capital of the republic. It was a Sunday afternoon, and as I entered my hotel, I heard great merriment in the bar. Looking in to see what it was all about, I saw some fifteen young men gathered around a long table. Some of them recognized me and called to me to join them, which I did. "What is all this gaiety about?" I asked. "Oh! politics," they said. It was during a very heated presidential campaign; there were five candidates in the field, and every speech was full of blood and thunder. How each party appeared to hate the other! "Well," said I, "what party do

you fellows represent?" "We represent all five parties. So-and-so is in this party, and So-and-so is in that, and so on." There they were, members of every party gathered around the festive board, the best of friends, and tuning up to go forth the next day and hurl all the invectives in the Spanish language at each other.

One always feels safe even out in the farm lands for the Costa Rican countryman is a peace-loving, courteous fellow. I was never nervous riding home, no matter how late or how dark it might be—and there is no place darker or more lonely than a cane field at twelve or one o'clock on a pitch black night. (I also planted cane and had a small sugar mill.) The horse would be jogging along and it would be so dark I could see nothing, not even my hand before my face. He would stop and ease up sidewise, I would put out my hand and feel a gate, push it open, and jog along again. He might hesitate and shy a little, and then I would know that someone was in the road. A familiar, friendly voice would say, "You are out late tonight, Don José." "No later than you are, my friend," I would answer. "May you pass a very happy night, Don José," came the farewell, and we would continue on our way.

My well-loved Costa Rica, I may add, declared war on the Japanese even before the United States did.

"Nice little Costa Rica," I miss you.

The Summer School of the University of Chile

RUTH SEDGWICK

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THE SUMMER SCHOOL of the University of Chile, organized by the Rector, Dr. Juvenal Hernández (now Minister of Defense), in accordance with a University regulation of May 14, 1935, has just completed a very successful seventh year under the competent guidance of its dean, Señora Amanda Labarca. The hundred percent increase in enrollment during these seven years indicates the popularity of its courses. This year about 1,060 students attended; courses began on January 2 and ended on January 30.

The twofold purpose of the School fits the needs of many Chilean and foreign teachers. Postgraduate work is offered for university graduates, and courses of general culture or of a technical nature are listed for teachers who do not have a university degree. The School therefore attracts primary, secondary, and normal school teachers. This year there were more than a hundred different courses, covering work in the sciences, literature, art, music, and education, as well as arts and crafts, sewing, and cooking. At the end of the Summer School special programs showed what had been accomplished during the month. A musical program was given by the chorus, an elaborate tea was prepared and served by the students of nutrition, and a very attractive exhibition of handiwork was arranged in the gymnasium.

Besides the classes, other programs of an educational nature were organized for the students. The University Experimental Theater gave several splendid perform-

ances. The String Quartet, the National Symphony Orchestra, and the Chilean pianist Rosita Renard and the cellist Adolfo Adonoposoff played inspiring concert programs. During the Anglo-North American Week special concerts, art exhibitions, lectures, and teas took place at the Chilean-British Cultural Institute and the Chilean-North American Cultural Institute. Among other social events were



AMANDA LABARCA

Dean of the University of Chile Summer School.

two large receptions at which the Minister of Education and the Rector of the University were the respective hosts.

Excursions were taken on Saturdays and Sundays to factories, office buildings, libraries, and schools, as well as to nearby summer resorts, such as Las Termas de Cauquenes, Cartagena, Peñaflo, and Viña del Mar.

One of the most interesting features of the Summer School has always been the large attendance of foreign students and teachers. Among the foreign professors who taught this year were Professor Antonio Jaén Morente, of the University of Quito, Professor Otto Niemann, principal of the Progressive Experimental School of Uruguay (Escuela Experimental de Progreso del Uruguay), Professor Mira y López, of the Colegio Libre de Estudios Superiores of Buenos Aires, Professor Luis Jiménez de Asúa, of the University of Buenos Aires, Professor Juan Corominas, of the University of Cuyo, and Professor J. I. Cox, of Northwestern University. Several outside lecturers also gave talks before the School: Dr. Virgilio Rodríguez Beteta, Minister of Guatemala in Chile, Dr. Agustín Nieto Caballero, Ambassador of Colombia in Chile; Professor Ricardo Tudela, of the University of Mendoza; and Professor Luis Reissig, head of the Colegio Libre de Estudios Superiores of Buenos Aires.

The Ministry of Foreign Relations grants generous fellowships to a certain number of students from each of the other American countries, and many other

Latin American students also come to the Summer School. This year the largest groups came from Chile's neighbors Bolivia and Argentina. The following table shows the distribution of foreign students:

<i>Country</i>	<i>Number of students</i>
Argentina.....	14
Bolivia.....	32
Colombia.....	3
Costa Rica.....	1
Dominican Republic.....	2
Ecuador.....	2
Guatemala.....	1
Mexico.....	2
Paraguay.....	2
Peru.....	4
Uruguay.....	10
United States.....	10
Venezuela.....	1
Total.....	84

These foreign students, most of whom are teachers in their native countries, took part in the forums held each week on topics of special interest to the Americas, such as inter-American cooperation, literacy campaigns, and education of the masses. Many interesting points of view were expressed in these sincere and frank discussions.

At the Summer School of the University of Chile there is an air of great cordiality and fraternity, thanks to the friendliness of the Chilean students and teachers toward the foreigners. This is an additional reason why the foreign students feel that they have spent a very valuable month in Santiago, a month full of intellectual stimulation and cultural broadening.

The Americas and the War

To keep the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be

¹ The first part of this compilation was published in the April 1942 issue of the BULLETIN. When a reference stands by itself in parenthesis, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issue, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number (e. g., 2a).

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, "*Boletín Oficial*"; Brazil, "*Diário Oficial*"; Chile, "*Diario Oficial*"; Colombia, "*Diario Oficial*"; Costa Rica, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; Cuba, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; Dominican Republic, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; El Salvador, "*Diario Oficial*"; Ecuador, "*El Registro*"; Guatemala, "*Diario de Centro América*"; Haiti, "*Le Moniteur*"; Honduras, "*La Gaceta*"; Mexico, "*Diario Oficial*"; Nicaragua, "*La Gaceta*"; Panama, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; Paraguay, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; Peru, "*El Peruano*"; Uruguay, "*Diario Oficial*"; and Venezuela, "*Gaceta Oficial*."

compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

The list will be continued in subsequent issues of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART II¹

ARGENTINA

2a. December 11, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 107,634-292 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the state of war existing between Canada and Rumania, Hungary, and Finland. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

2b. December 11, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 107,635-293 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the state of war existing between Canada and Japan. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

2c. December 11, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 107,793-296 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the state of war existing between Great Britain and Hungary, Finland, and Rumania. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

3. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

4a. December 17, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 108,468-304 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the

state of war existing between Poland and Japan. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

4b. December 17, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 108,469-305 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the state of war existing between The Netherlands and Japan. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

4c. December 30, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 109,670-319 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the state of war existing between The Netherlands and Italy. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 19, 1942.)

4d. January 7, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 110,325-2 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the state of war existing between Great Britain and Bulgaria. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 26, 1942.)

4e. January 8, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 110,512-4 canceling the appointments of specified Japanese subjects as honorary consuls of Argentina in Japan. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 26, 1942.)

4f. January 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No.

110,684 prohibiting the reexportation of natural rubber, and requiring permits for the exportation of all merchandise containing any rubber, such permits to be issued by the Ministry of Agriculture with the approval of the Ministry of War. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 24, 1942.)

4g. January 15, 1942. Note of the Minister of the Interior to the Buenos Aires Chief of Police, sending a list of persons entrusted with supervising the finances of commercial entities of countries considered as belligerents, and requesting that investigation be made and such persons notified to cease such activities. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, January 16, 1942.)

4h. January 15, 1942. Note of the Minister of the Interior to the Buenos Aires Chief of Police, instructing him to check and act upon violations of the decree of May 15, 1939, which regulated foreign associations and provided that they must be registered with the local police. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, January 16, 1942.)

4i. January 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 111,245-15 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the state of war existing between Canada and Rumania, Hungary, and Finland. (*Boletín Oficial*, January 31, 1942.)

BOLIVIA

0. January 24, 1942. Decree stating that all mine workers would be considered as having the status of army conscripts, so that the production of minerals needed to carry on the war would not be affected by the enlistment of such workers in the army. (*El Diario*, La Paz, January 25, 1942.)

BRAZIL

3a. December 30, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 8505, approving Regulation No. 26 of the Minister of War on the inspection of Corps Areas to ascertain the preparation of the armed forces for war. (*Diário Oficial*, January 3, 1942.)

3b. December 31, 1941. Regulations issued by the Export and Import Section of the Bank of Brazil and approved by the Minister of the Treasury for the importation of materials, products, and machinery from the United States, classifying requests for such importation according to the nature of the materials and the purposes to which they will be put, and establishing priorities. (*Diário Oficial*, January 6, 7, 1942.)

3c. December 31, 1941. Decree-law No. 3994,

organizing the 7th Cavalry Division Regiment with temporary headquarters at Recife. (*Diário Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

3d. January 5, 1942. Decree-law No. 3998, temporarily transferring the headquarters of the First Corps Area to Recife. (*Diário Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

3e. January 6, 1942. Notice No. 33 of the Ministry of War, temporarily closing the Army War College, and recommending that courses be established at garrisons and corps headquarters to compensate for this closing. (*Diário Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

4. (*Diário Oficial*, January 15, 1942.)

5a. January 17, 1942. Notice No. 136 of the Ministry of War, restricting the transfers or furloughs of officers in order to meet the emergency situation and make normal the functioning of the corps, general staffs, commands, divisions, and establishments of the Army. (*Diário Oficial*, January 20, 1942.)

6a. January 23, 1942. Decree-law No. 4051, providing that all foreigners who, by February 1, 1942, had not registered with the local authorities as provided by Decree No. 3010 of August 20, 1938, would be subject to a fine of 20 milreis for every month of delinquency. (*Diário Oficial*, January 28, 1942.)

7. (*Diário Oficial*, January 29, 1942.)

8. (*Diário Oficial*, January 29, 1942.)

9. (*Diário Oficial*, January 29, 1942.)

12. February 4, 1942. Action of the National Press Council closing specified newspapers controlled by Axis interests in various parts of the republic, and canceling permits of specified Axis news agencies in São Paulo. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, February 5, 1942.)

13. February 5, 1942. Order from Police Headquarters closing specified Italian athletic and beneficent societies and the German-Brazilian Chamber of Commerce. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, February 6, 1942.)

14. February 8, 1942. Decree-law creating, in the interest of national defense, the Federal Territory of Fernando de Noronha and transferring to the Federal Government the administration of the archipelago, formerly a part of the State of Pernambuco. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, February 9 and 10, 1942.)

15. February 8, 1942. Decree-Law providing that the Fernando de Noronha Agricultural Colony (an internment camp for political pris-

oners) shall be transferred to a site on the south-east part of Ilha Grande, in Rio de Janeiro Bay, and be renamed the Federal District Agricultural Colony. (*Jornal do Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, February 9 and 10, 1942.)

16. March 7, 1942. National Defense Board established by the President; included among the members are the chiefs of staff of the army, navy, and air forces, with the Minister of Foreign Affairs, to whom the President gave extraordinary powers to strengthen continental defenses, as chairman. (*New York Times*, March 8, 1942.)

17. March 11, 1942. Constitutional Amendment increasing the powers of the President during the state of emergency or of war, and granting the President the power to extend suspension of constitutional guarantees to include the right to own property, in order to permit the Government to expropriate the property of nationals of States committing acts of aggression against Brazil, and also to permit the President to declare that a state of war exists. (*New York Times*, March 12, 1942.)

18. March 11, 1942. Order issued by the Government to all Brazilian merchant marine vessels to take shelter in the nearest Brazilian ports. (*New York Times*, March 12, 1942.)

19. March 12, 1942. Presidential Decree confiscating specified percentages of the funds, according to their amount, belonging to citizens of the Axis powers and providing necessary measures for the administration of the property of such persons, in compensation for the losses suffered by Brazil at the hands of those powers. (*New York Times*, March 13, 1942.)

20. March 13, 1942. Presidential measure placing six German firms under the technical administration of the Government, in accordance with the decree authorizing the confiscation of the property of Axis subjects in Brazil (see No. 19 above). (*New York Times*, March 14, 1942.)

CHILE

2. January 24, 1942. Decree issued by the Ministry of National Defense forbidding the circulation, by any means, of information calculated to disturb the peace, and providing penalties for infractions. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, January 25, 1942.)

3. January 28, 1942. Circular issued by the Minister of National Defense calling upon the people to cooperate by individual effort to mitigate the effects of the war upon Chilean economy. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, January 29, 1942.)

COLOMBIA

9. December 22, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2216 declaring that the government will consider as nonbelligerents the United States, Cuba, El Salvador, Costa Rica, Guatemala, Panama, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, and the Dominican Republic and that therefore the neutrality provisions in force will not be applied to them, but will continue to be applied to non-American nations at war. (*Diario Oficial*, January 28, 1942.)

10. January 17, 1942. Presidential decree on the control and administration of property belonging to citizens or entities of the Axis powers. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, January 18, 1942.)

11. January 21, 1942. Presidential decree (Education) containing important provisions on the functioning of schools in the country and establishing special inspection for secondary schools, to prevent the infiltration of foreign ideology. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, January 22, 1942.)

12. January 21, 1942. Resolution of the Ministry of Education closing the schools called Colegio Alemán in Barranquilla and Bogotá. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, January 22, 1942.)

13. January 28, 1942. Resolution of the Ministry of Education closing the Colegio Alemán in Cali. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, January 29, 1942.)

14. January 29, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 181 providing for the control of naturalized Colombians and setting forth revised regulations to be observed by foreigners, both transient and resident, upon entering and during their stay in the republic. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, January 30, 1942.)

15. January 30, 1942. Presidential decree ordering that existing stocks of specified metals and manufactures be reported to the Ministry of National Economy and providing for control of the use of such metals. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, January 31, 1942.)

COSTA RICA

18. January 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2 (Public Health and Social Welfare, and The Treasury and Commerce) prohibiting for the duration of the war the exportation of medicinal imports and of raw materials for medicinal products, without the written authorization of the Department of Public Health and Social Welfare. (*La Gaceta*, February 6, 1942.)

19. January 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 6 (Foreign Affairs), approving the Joint Declaration by the United Nations, the text of which is included in the decree. (*La Gaceta*, February 10, 1942.)

20. February 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 4 (The Treasury and Commerce) forbidding for the duration of the war the exportation or re-exportation of oils, fats, and all other raw materials for industry, unworked or scrap metals (except gold) and imported construction material, but providing that if there is a surplus after national requirements have been met, such articles may be exported by permission of the Department of the Treasury and Commerce. (*La Gaceta*, February 8, 1942.)

CUBA

51. January 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 213 extending the period for payment of certain specified luxury taxes created by Resolution-Law No. 1 of December 31, 1941 (see Cuba 33, BULLETIN, April 1942.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 3, 1942, p. 1805.)

52. January 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 246 extending, because of the emergency, the application of minimum tariff schedules to articles of prime necessity. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 4, 1942, p. 1898.)

53. February 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 240 containing regulations for the Army and Navy, in accordance with Resolution-Law No. 7 (see Cuba 49, BULLETIN, April 1942), the Organic Law of the Army and Navy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 4, 1942, p. 1874.)

54. February 4, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 8, declaring that, in order to ensure the most effective fiscal organization for national defense, only the municipal taxes referred to in Article 216 of the Organic Municipal Law are compatible with the tax system of the nation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, February 5, 1942.)

55. February 4, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 9, on emergency crops. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, February 5, 1942.)

56. February 4, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 10, modifying Resolution-Laws Nos. 2 and 7 (see Cuba 34 and 49, BULLETIN, April 1942) of December 31, 1941, and January 27, 1942, respectively, making further reorganization of the armed forces. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, February 7, 1942.)

57. February 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 262 approving, in accordance with Decree No. 178 of January 28, 1942 (see Cuba 50, BULLETIN, April 1942), the contract with the Defense Supplies Corporation of the United States for the sale of unrefined sugars, inverted syrups, and molasses from the 1942 grinding, and charging

the Minister of Agriculture and the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute with carrying out the decree (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, February 5, 1942.)

58. February 5, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 11, modifying articles 25 and 31 of Resolution-Law No. 6 (see Cuba 48, BULLETIN, April 1942) relative to the prohibition of airport construction within town limits and to the expropriation of land for airports. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 6, 1942, p. 1993.)

59. February 5, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 12, on civil defense, creating the Central Civil Defense Board, with headquarters in the Ministry of National Defense, defining the powers and duties of the Board and those of provincial and municipal boards, and setting forth the obligations of citizens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 6, 1942, p. 1994.)

60. February 5, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 13, on cooperation for defense, designed to facilitate Cuba's action in the war in accordance with the plans being drafted by the United Nations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 6, 1942, p. 1996.)

61. February 5, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 263 enabling the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute to fulfill its contract with the Defense Supplies Corporation of the United States. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, February 5, 1942.)

62. February 6, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 14, increasing taxes on petroleum and its derivatives, increasing postage rates, taxing molasses and sugar syrups, and modifying articles 15 and 16 of Resolution-Law No. 2 of December 31, 1941, on national police (see Cuba 34, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 7, 1942, p. 2069.)

63. February 6, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 15, modifying the taxes levied in Resolution-Law No. 1 (see Cuba 33, BULLETIN, April 1942) of December 31, 1941, in order to make tax systems uniform, facilitate the collection of taxes, and avoid fraud. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 7, 1942, p. 2072.)

64. February 6, 1942. Resolution-Law No. 16 containing the special budget for national defense. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 7, 1942, p. 2075.)

65. February 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 335 providing that, to carry out stipulations regarding the Navy contained in Resolution No. 7 (see Cuba 49, BULLETIN, April 1942), the coast and territorial waters of Cuba be divided into three administrative regions, the North Naval

District, the East Naval District, and the South Naval District. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 12, 1942, p. 2421.)

66. February 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 347 extending the period established by Decree No. 36 of January 2, 1942 (see Cuba 35, *BULLETIN*, April 1942) in which stated holders of raw sugars or of sugar for domestic consumption may export such sugars to the United States. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 13, 1942, p. 2517.)

67. February 11, 1942. Presidential Decree announcing that Congress had ratified on February 9, 1942, Resolution-Laws 1-16, inclusive. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, February 11, 1942.)

68. February 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 334 prohibiting, because of the national emergency, the exportation of cows on the hoof except by authorization of the Minister of Agriculture. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 12, 1942, p. 2359.)

69. February 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 419 authorizing a group of Naval officers to take advanced studies at the Naval Air Station at Pensacola, Florida, in response to an invitation from the United States Government. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 21, 1942, p. 3003.)

70. February 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 367 stating that, because of the national emergency, the special sulfur used as a fungicide in agriculture may be imported duty free. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 17, 1942, p. 2679.)

71. February 16, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 384 providing that the raw sugar surplus of the 1941 crop referred to in Presidential Decree No. 36 (see Cuba 35, *BULLETIN*, April 1942) may be used to fulfill sales contracts with Great Britain or contracts signed directly with refiners, and for no other purpose. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 18, 1942, p. 2778.)

72. February 16, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 385 setting the sugar production for the 1942 season at 3,600,000 long tons, of which 3,400,000 tons shall be for export, in accordance with the convention signed by the Cuban Sugar Stabilization Institute and the Defense Supplies Corporation of the United States on January 28, 1942 (see Cuba 50, *BULLETIN*, April 1942), and 200,000 tons for domestic consumption. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 18, 1942, p. 2778.)

73. February 16, 1942. Decree No. 396, of the Ministry of National Defense, providing for the organization of two volunteer infantry regiments

in the Emergency Military Service. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 19, 1942, p. 2907.)

74. February 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 405, providing that, in order to encourage industries that would supply the needs of national consumption in the present emergency, all machinery, apparatus, instruments, or other articles of scientific or industrial character imported for temporary use shall be exempt from import and other customs duties. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 19, 1942, p. 2901.)

75. February 19, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 403 making compulsory the use of syrups in the production of alcohol, for defense purposes, and prescribing how distillers in Cuba shall declare their stocks on hand. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 19, 1942, p. 2904.)

76. February 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 518 containing the provisional regulations for the taxes established in Chapter I of Resolution-Law No. 14 (see 62 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 2, 1942, p. 3509.)

77. March 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 541 creating the position of Assistant Alien Property Custodian and setting forth his functions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 5, 1942, p. 3765.)

78. March 2, 1942. Resolution No. 12 of the Alien Property Custodian exempting specified persons from the provisions of Decree No. 3343 of December 12, 1941 (see Cuba 6, *BULLETIN*, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 6, 1942, p. 3898.)

79. March 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 552 designed to stimulate the manufacture of rubber products in view of the present emergency, and to that end adding rubber in any form to the articles enumerated in Decree No. 246 of January 31, 1942 (see 52 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 6, 1942, p. 3829.)

80. March 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 553 providing that the exportation of scrap iron and steel to the United States during the war period may take place from any port in the republic, with the authorization of the Minister of the Treasury through the General Customs Bureau. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 6, 1942, p. 3830.)

81. March 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 559 dealing with arbitration of labor disputes in accordance with Resolution-Law No. 5 (Production and Supply Law, see Cuba 45, *BULLETIN*, April 1942) of January 20, 1942. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 5, 1942, p. 3769.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

11. February 13, 1942. Decree No. 1514, placing under immediate government control all new or used automobiles, trucks, and motor vehicles, as well as tires and tubes; requiring that permission be obtained for their operation; and prohibiting the acquisition of motor vehicles, tires, or tubes by nationals of the Axis Powers or persons on the Black Lists. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 14, 1942.)

12. February 17, 1942. Decree No. 1517, placing under government control all real and personal property in the Dominican Republic belonging to a specified Italian national. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 19, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

8. January 21, 1942. Executive Decree attaching all new tires and tubes for all kinds of vehicles, in the hands of dealers or of individuals who wish to resell them and placing them under the authority of the Mortgage Bank (*Banco Hipotecario*) which will offer them for sale; and placing future imports and sale of all kinds of natural or synthetic rubber tires and tubes under the direction of the Import Control Committee (*Comité de Control de Importaciones*). (*Diario Oficial*, January 24, 1942.)

9. January 30, 1942. Executive Order No. 24, authorizing the Secretary of Development to take up with the Secretary of State of the United States the matter of El Salvador's participation in the cooperative Inter-American Highway construction plan, in accordance with the contract signed at Washington on December 10, 1941, by El Salvador and the Export-Import Bank, through which El Salvador obtained a loan of \$400,000 for its one-third share of the highway construction cost. (*Diario Oficial*, February 5, 1942.)

10. February 5, 1942. Executive Decree regulating the Decree of January 21, 1942 (No. 8 above) in regard to the attachment of new tires and tubes. (*Diario Oficial*, February 7, 1942.)

GUATEMALA

12. February 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2693 forbidding, while abnormal circumstances last, the sale, barter, or exchange of new trucks and automobiles and new tires and inner tubes for the same or for other vehicles using rubber tires and tubes, except by permission of the Guatemalan Section of Economic and Financial Coordination. (*Diario de Centro América*, February 10, 1942.)

HAITI

17. January 7, 1942. Decree-Law No. 89, amending Decree-Law No. 80 of December 18, 1941 (see Haiti 9, BULLETIN, April 1942), defining enemy agents and providing for the freezing of their funds and property. (*Le Moniteur*, January 8, 1942.)

18. January 10, 1942. Decree-Law No. 91, requiring the registration of all male citizens of Haiti between the ages of 18 and 40 years. (*Le Moniteur*, January 12, 1942.)

19. January 10, 1942. Decree-Law No. 92, waiving all customs formalities and making all ports of the Republic available for the disembarkation of all items pertaining to war material, equipment, and revictualing of the armed forces of the United States. (*Le Moniteur*, January 12, 1942.)

20. January 10, 1942. Decree-Law No. 93, prescribing penalties for enemies, allies of enemies, and enemy agents convicted of falsifying accounts for the purpose of hiding funds. (*Le Moniteur*, January 12, 1942.)

21. January 13, 1942. Decree-Law No. 95, providing that for the duration of the emergency the President shall take all steps that circumstances require, by means of decrees countersigned by the Cabinet Minister concerned. (*Le Moniteur*, January 15, 1942.)

22. January 16, 1942. Decree No. 104, providing that for the duration of the emergency all money, credit, and exchange operations involving Haiti and/or foreign countries shall be conducted only by the National Bank of the Republic of Haiti or the Royal Bank of Canada. (*Le Moniteur*, January 22, 1942.)

23. January 17, 1942. Communiqué, Department of Commerce, suspending for the period January 19–21, 1942, inclusive, the sale of tires and tubes, pending price-fixing action; and requesting gasoline and oil conservation pending the issuance of regulations for consumption of such products. (*Le Moniteur*, January 19, 1942.)

HONDURAS

(6) January 21, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 30, approving Presidential Decree No. 43, prohibiting the export, except to the United States and other American countries having a system of export control, of specified vegetable and mineral products of strategic and critical importance, and also prohibiting the reexport, except to the United States and other American countries having a

system of export control, of articles and materials imported from the United States. (*La Gaceta*, January 29, 1942.)

MEXICO

1a. December 8, 1941. Executive Order to the Department of Communications and Public Works prohibiting the sending of messages in code or in any language except Spanish for Latin American countries and English for other foreign countries. (*Diario Oficial*, December 17, 1941.)

1b. December 9, 1941. Executive Order to the Department of Communications and Public Works ordering the suspension of telegraphic and radio communications with Japan and all places possessed or occupied by that power. Cited in preamble to Executive Order of December 31, 1941 (10d below).

8a. December 11, 1941. Executive Order to the Department of Foreign Affairs, suspending the granting of naturalization papers to nationals of Germany, Italy, and Japan, or to persons who were nationals of those countries prior to January 1, 1939. (*Diario Oficial*, January 15, 1942.)

8b. December 18, 1941. Decree making it obligatory for all foreigners resident in the country to register in the new Foreign Register, Department of the Interior, in the year 1942. Effective three days after date of publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, March 4, 1942.)

10a. December 30, 1941. Decree regulating flights and landings of airplanes. Effective upon date of publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, January 26, 1942.)

10b. December 30, 1941. Executive Order to the Department of Communications and Public Works, ordering the suspension of private international telephonic service with Japan and all places owned or occupied by that power. (*Diario Oficial*, January 30, 1942.)

10c. December 30, 1941. Executive Order to the Secretary of Communications and Public Works amending Executive Order of December 8, 1941 (1a above) to permit accredited diplomatic and consular representatives and legal financial institutions to use codes in their telegraphic and radio communications. (*Diario Oficial*, January 30, 1942.)

10d. December 31, 1941. Executive Order to the Department of Communications and Public Works amending Executive Order of December 9, 1941 (1b above) by also suspending interna-

tional telegraphic and radio communications with Germany, Italy, and all places possessed or occupied by those powers. (*Diario Oficial*, February 18, 1942.)

10e. December 31, 1941. Executive Order to the Department of Communications and Public Works amending Executive Order of December 30, 1941 (10b above) by also suspending private international telephonic service with Germany, Italy, and all places possessed or occupied by those powers. (*Diario Oficial*, February 18, 1942.)

10f. January 2, 1942. Executive Order to the Department of Foreign Affairs prohibiting the granting of naturalization papers to nationals of Bulgaria, Hungary, and Rumania (as well as of Germany, Italy, and Japan), and to persons who, having been national of those countries, lost that nationality or acquired another prior to December 31, 1938. (*Diario Oficial*, January 24, 1942.)

12. January 13, 1942. Decree restricting the exportation of rubber, including tires and tubes of either national or foreign manufacture, rubber scraps, sheets, and all kinds of rubber manufactured articles and materials. Effective upon date of publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, February 17, 1942.)

13. January 21, 1942. Executive Order to the Department of Agriculture and Development and the Department of the Treasury and Public Credit, providing for the creation of a fund of 1,000,000 pesos in the National Bank of Agricultural Credit (*Banco Nacional de Crédito Agrícola*) for loans up to 50 percent of cultivation costs to small farmers who cultivate olive, coconut, rubber, rubber and cacao, or rubber and coffee trees, for the purpose of ultimately supplying markets for vegetable oils and other raw materials now unobtainable from the Far East. (*Diario Oficial*, February 18, 1942.)

14. January 28, 1942. Decree abolishing the Military Technical Board (*Dirección Técnica Militar*) and establishing the Technical Commission (*Comisión Técnica*) to function in connection with the Department of National Defense and the Presidential General Staff. (*Diario Oficial*, February 10, 1942.)

15. January 30, 1942. Decree amending the General Communications Law in regard to airplane flights and landings. Effective upon date of publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, February 19, 1942.)

16. February 3, 1942. Regulation of Section V of Article 6 of the Law on Government Departments, giving to the Department of National Economy certain powers to regulate and control the acquisition and distribution of imports from the United States that are or are not subject to export quotas, licenses, and priorities, and to authorize the exportation of national raw materials, manufactures and semi-manufactures after domestic requirements have been met. Effective upon date of publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, February 6, 1942.)

17. February 11, 1942. Executive Order to the Department of National Economy directing that dealers in and manufacturers of rayon render monthly reports of their stocks on hand. Effective upon date of publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, February 20, 1942.)

18. February 27, 1942. Executive Order to the Secretary of National Economy, making it obligatory for dealers and manufactures of tin plate to render monthly reports of stocks on hand. Effective upon date of publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, March 5, 1942.)

NICARAGUA

0. December 7, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 687 calling a special session of Congress for December 9, 1941. (*La Gaceta*, December 9, 1942.)

2a. December 10, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 688 calling a special session of Congress for December 16, 1941. (*La Gaceta*, December 11, 1941.)

3a. December 16, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 69 creating the Price and Trade Control Board. (*La Gaceta*, December 17, 1941.)

7. (*La Gaceta*, December 19, 1941.)

7a. December 20, 1941. Presidential Order No. 26 approving the contract between Nicaragua and the Export-Import Bank of Washington for a loan of \$2,000,000 to be used for highway construction and development and for other productive public works needed to improve economic conditions in the country. (*La Gaceta*, December 23, 1941.)

8. (*La Gaceta*, December 23, 1941.)

9. December 22, 1941. Joint Congressional Resolution No. 37 approving the contract between Nicaragua and the Export-Import Bank for a loan of \$2,000,000 and quoting the text of the document. (See No. 7a above.) (*La Gaceta*, December 23, 1941.)

PANAMA

11. January 3, 1942. Decree No. 143 providing, in the interests of the safety of navigation, for the suspension during the war of certain requirements of Executive Decree No. 114 of 1938 (in regard to stating the name and sailing date of vessels on bills of lading) in all cases where the bills of lading cover merchandise destined for the Republic of Panama and shipped on boats belonging to nations at war with the powers and allies of the Axis. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 17, 1942.)

PARAGUAY

3. January 26, 1942. Decree-Law No. 10720, amending, in the interests of increased national agricultural production, the Compulsory Military Service Law (No. 194), by reducing the customary two-year military service term to one year for men who own at least 12 acres of land and who personally engage in farming it. (*El País*, Asunción, January 27, 1942.)

PERU

2a. January 17, 1942. Presidential Decree modifying certain labor measures in order to increase production, not only to supply the expected lack of supplies from abroad, but also to increase exports. (*El Peruano*, January 17, 1942.)

2b. January 19, 1942. Supreme Decree creating the Foreign Trade and Industry Committee. (*El Peruano*, January 22, 1942.)

2c. January 21, 1942. Supreme Resolution suspending the sale of tires and inner tubes until a priorities system for their distribution should be established, and creating the Tires and Accessories Sales Control Commission. (*El Peruano*, January 23, 1942.)

2d. January 22, 1942. Order issued by the Tires and Accessories Sales Control Commission regulating the sales of tires from January 26 to February 26, 1942. (*El Peruano*, January 24, 1942.)

2e. January 23, 1942. Supreme Decree stating that commercial and savings banks will be subject to special regulations for the duration of the war. (*El Peruano*, January 27, 1942.)

3. (Memorandum issued by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and published in *El Comercio*, January 25, 1942.)

4. January 24, 1942. Treasury Resolution setting forth priorities system for the sale of tires and inner tubes. (*El Peruano*, January 27, 1942.)

5. January 24, 1942. Supreme Resolution re-

stricting extra-continental radiotelephone conversations and messages. (*El Peruano*, January 26, 1942.)

6. January 24, 1942. Supreme Resolution suspending indefinitely the granting of permits for private radio stations. (*El Peruano*, January 26, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

50. February 10, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2540 establishing the Boston Maritime Control Area and prescribing regulations for the control thereof. (*Federal Register*, February 13, 1942.)

51. February 12, 1942. Public Law 452 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution of Congress appropriating the \$500,000,000 authorized by Public Law 442 (see United States 48, BULLETIN, April 1942) for aid to China.

52. February 16, 1942. Public Law 455 (77th Congress), providing for the temporary promotion in the Army of the United States of officers commissioned in the Air Corps or assigned to duty therewith.

53. February 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 9066, authorizing the Secretary of War to prescribe military areas. (*Federal Register*, February 25, 1942.)

54. February 21, 1942. Public Law 459 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution amending Section 7 of the Neutrality Act of 1939 (which prohibits credit transactions between any person within the United States and belligerent countries in the purchase of goods proclaimed to be considered arms, ammunition, or implements of war), making its provisions inoperative while the United States is at war.

55. February 21, 1942. Public Law 463 (77th Congress). First Deficiency Appropriation Act, 1942, including \$100,000 for precautionary measures for the security of the collections of the Library of Congress; \$100,000,000 to enable the Director of Civilian Defense to carry out the provisions of Public Law 415 (see United States 39, BULLETIN, April 1942); and \$15,000,000 for the protection, care, and relief of the civilian population of the Territory of Hawaii.

56. February 23, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of the United States of America and of the United Kingdom on the principles applying to mutual aid in the prosecution of the war against aggression, authorized and provided for by the Act of March 11, 1941 (Lend-Lease Act). (*Bulletin*, U. S. Department of State, February 28, 1942.)

57. February 24, 1942. Executive Order No. 9072, transferring certain vessels and personnel from the Coast and Geodetic Survey to the War and Navy Departments. (*Federal Register*, February 26, 1942.)

58. February 25, 1942. Executive Order No. 9074, directing the Secretary of the Navy to take action necessary to protect vessels, harbors, ports, and waterfront facilities. (*Federal Register*, February 28, 1942.)

59. February 26, 1942. Executive Order No. 9078, establishing the Army Specialist Corps, for the purpose of obtaining the temporary services of certain qualified civilian employees for the War Department, this Corps to be composed of uniformed civilian employees of that Department. (*Federal Register*, March 3, 1942.)

60. February 27, 1942. Executive Order No. 9080, authorizing, in joint action and full accord with the President of Mexico, the creation of the Joint Mexican-United States Defense Commission. (*Federal Register*, March 3, 1942.) (See BULLETIN, March 1942, pp. 172-3.)

61. February 27, 1942. Executive Order No. 9081, withdrawing specified public lands in the State of Arizona for use of the War Department for aviation purposes. (*Federal Register*, March 3, 1942.)

62. February 28, 1942. Executive Order No. 9082, reorganizing the Army of the United States to provide under the Chief of Staff a ground force, under a Commanding General, Army Ground Forces; an air force, under a Commanding General, Army Air Forces; and a service of supply command, under a Commanding General, Service of Supply; and such other commands as the Secretary of War may find necessary for the national security. (*Federal Register*, March 3, 1942.)

63. February 28, 1942. Executive Order No. 9083, redistributing certain maritime functions (of the Bureau of Marine Inspection and Navigation, Bureau of Customs, United States Coast Guard, and Maritime Commission) in order to expedite the prosecution of the war effort. (*Federal Register*, March 3, 1942.)

64. March 5, 1942. Public Law 473 (77th Congress), to provide for the planting of guayule and other rubber-bearing plants and to make available a source of crude rubber for emergency and defense uses.

65. March 5, 1942. Public Law 474 (77th Congress). Fifth Supplemental National Defense Appropriation Act, 1942, making additional

appropriations for the national defense for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1942, and for other purposes (including \$3,011,512,000 for expediting production of equipment and supplies for national defense; \$1,349,000,000 for the Signal Service, \$167,440,000 for the Air Corps, \$1,226,300,000 for the Corps of Engineers, \$13,252,200,000 for the Ordnance Department, and \$288,336,000 for the Chemical Warfare Service of the Army; \$31,769,000 for seacoast defenses; \$1,502,000,000 to the United States Maritime Commission for construction of vessels, equipment and supplies for such vessels, and plants and facilities; and \$5,425,000,000 for the defense of the United States, including the procurement of defense articles, information and services for the government of any country whose defense the President deems vital to the defense of the United States).

URUGUAY

4a. December 18, 1941. Presidential Decree extending the declaration of solidarity and the non-belligerent status accorded the United States (see Uruguay 3, BULLETIN, April 1942) to include the other American Republics at war with the Axis. (*Diario Oficial*, January 5, 1942.)

4b. December 20, 1941. Presidential Decree prohibiting the sending, by radio, telegraph, or other means, of any news pertaining to the movements of war or merchant vessels. (*Diario Oficial*, January 21, 1942.)

4c. December 26, 1941. Presidential Decree regulating and limiting the sale of fuel oil. (*Diario Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

4d. December 29, 1941. Presidential Decree restricting and regulating airplane flights and activities in the Montevideo area. (*Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1942.)

6. January 25, 1942. Presidential message notifying the General Assembly of the severing of relations with the Axis. (*Diario Oficial*, February 4, 1942.)

7. January 27, 1942. Presidential Decree prescribing means for preventing the entrance into the country of foreign publications that are contrary to the democratic-republican form of government. (*Diario Oficial*, February 4, 1942.)

8. January 28, 1942. Presidential Decree amplifying the provisions established by Law No. 9936 of June 18, 1940, against the dissemination of anti-democratic propaganda. (*Diario Oficial*, February 3, 1942.)

9. January 29, 1942. Presidential message to

the General Assembly in regard to the Decree of January 28, 1942 (8 above). (*Diario Oficial*, February 3, 1942.)

VENEZUELA

6. January 20, 1942. Executive Decree No. 16 restricting certain constitutional guarantees throughout the nation, and suspending others in specified regions, and providing that the movement of foreigners in the Republic shall be subject to supervision and control. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 22, 1942.)

7. January 22, 1942. Resolution of the Government that, in view of satisfactory reports on the situation of Venezuelan diplomats in Germany, the order confining the members of the German diplomatic staff in Caracas to their domiciles should be suspended. (*Noticias de Venezuela*, Oficina Nacional de Prensa, January 23, 1942.)

8. January 23, 1942. Treasury resolution providing that any irregularities, due to the war, in documents for merchandise shipped from New York shall not make the captains of vessels or the consignees liable to penalty for infraction of customs regulations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 23, 1942.)

9. January 24, 1942. Resolution No. 4 of the National Price Regulation Board fixing the maximum sales price for parts and accessories of motor vehicles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 24, 1942.)

10. January 29, 1942. Resolution of the Ministry of Promotion providing that motor vehicles shall be included in the list of articles of prime necessity subject to price regulation by Price Regulation Boards. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 29, 1942.)

11. January 29, 1942. Resolution No. 5 of the National Price Regulation Board providing that the maximum price to be charged in the sales of trucks and buses in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda, shall be set by that Board, and setting the maximum sale prices for automobiles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 29, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

3. March 3, 1942. Exchange of notes by Dr. Arthur de Souza Costa, the Minister of Finance of Brazil, and the Hon. Sumner Welles, Acting Secretary of State of the United States, providing for a program for the mobilization of the productive resources of Brazil, and for a line of credit of \$100,000,000 to be made available through the Export-Import Bank. (*Bulletin*, U. S. Department of State, March 7, 1942.)

4. March 3, 1942. Agreements signed by offi-

cials of the Export-Import Bank and the Metals Reserve Company of the United States Government with the Minister of Finance of Brazil and the British Ambassador, for the development of the Itabira mining properties and the Victoria-Minas Railroad, with accompanying arrangements for the procurement by the United States and Great Britain of the high-grade iron ores to be produced in these properties. (*Bulletin*, U. S. Department of State, March 7, 1942.)

5. March 3, 1942. Agreement signed by the Ambassador of Brazil and the Acting Secretary of State of the United States providing for expanded assistance to Brazil under the provisions of the

Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941. (*Bulletin*, U. S. Department of State, March 7, 1942.)

6. March 3, 1942. Exchange of notes by the Minister of Finance of Brazil and the Acting Secretary of State of the United States providing for the establishment of a \$5,000,000 fund by the Rubber Reserve Company, to be used in collaboration with the Brazilian Government in developing the raw rubber production of the Amazon Valley and adjacent regions. The notes were accompanied by an agreement whereby the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase Brazilian raw rubber for a period of five years. (*Bulletin*, U. S. Department of State, March 7, 1942.)

Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union met in special session on February 25, 1942, to consider some of the recommendations of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held at Rio de Janeiro January 15-28, 1942.

Prior to this session of the Governing Board, a special committee of some of its members had been named for the purpose of considering Resolution XXXIX of the Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs relative to the creation of an Inter-American Defense Board. The committee submitted a report in which it was recommended that the Chairman of the Governing Board invite the American governments to designate military and naval experts to serve as members of the Inter-American Defense Board, in order that the inaugural session might take place in Washington on March 30, 1942. (See frontispiece of this issue.) This recommendation was approved. The pur-

pose of the new Defense Board will be to study and to suggest measures necessary to the defense of the continent.

A second report relating to Resolution XVII on the subject of subversive activities was also approved. The report recommended that, for the purpose of coordinating the various measures mentioned in the resolution, the Governing Board elect by March 1, 1942, a committee of seven members to be known as the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense; determine its functions; and prepare the regulations that will govern its activities. The Governing Board agreed that this Committee should be made up of representatives designated by Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. The Board also recommended that each of the American Republics name an official to serve as liaison officer between the Committee and the respective government; and it further suggested to the governments that are to name

the seven members of the Committee that, inasmuch as the Inter-American Conference on Coordination of Police and Judicial Measures is to meet in Buenos Aires in May 1942 for the purpose of studying matters relating to the political defense of the continent, the respective members of the Committee be sent as delegates to that Conference.

The Governing Board proposed the city of Montevideo as the permanent seat of the Committee and fixed April 15, 1942, as the date for the opening session. The regulations governing the Committee's activities were also approved.

The third matter taken up by the Governing Board referred to Resolution XXV of the Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, in respect to post-war problems. That resolution embraced three distinct subjects: the naming of an Executive Committee of the Board, the formulation of projects pertaining to juridical and political matters, and the preparation of projects in the economic field. In accordance with the resolution, the Chairman of

the Governing Board was authorized to name an Executive Committee composed of five members of the Board, whereupon the following were designated: Dr. Carlos Martins, Ambassador of Brazil; Dr. Gabriel Turbay, Ambassador of Colombia; Dr. Aurelio F. Concheso, Ambassador of Cuba; Captain Colón Eloy Alfaro, Ambassador of Ecuador; and Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, Ambassador of Mexico. The Board also resolved that all the American Governments should be informed that the Executive Committee is ready to receive any recommendations of a juridical or political character they may wish to present; and finally, the Board recommended to the Governments that they submit economic plans and projects for consideration. It was also recommended that the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee be requested to continue its study of present economic problems and proceed to the study and preparation of recommendations on post-war economic problems as provided in the aforementioned resolution.

Pan American News

The Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture

The Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture will be held in Mexico City from July 6 to 16 next. The Mexican Government has already officially invited the other American Governments to send representatives to the Conference to discuss questions relating to agricultural technology as well as to problems brought about by the present war. Emphasis will be laid upon the production of such commodities as rubber, coffee, cacao, cotton, and grains and insecticidal, oil, fiber, aromatic and medicinal plants.

The spirit of agricultural cooperation pervading the Americas has been one of the outstanding demonstrations of practical Pan Americanism. Each country of this hemisphere can learn from its neighbors; each region needs products from the other regions; each area has special problems of production or of consumption which must be considered in preparing an agro-economic survey of the Americas. The Agricultural Conference in Mexico will study the various aspects of agricultural interdependence in terms of both the present and the future. It will also consider the urgent problems intimately associated with the present war, with hemisphere defense and with a plan for post-war agricultural cooperation advantageous to all the republics.

The Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture will also serve to give practical expression to many of the resolutions approved at the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the Ameri-

can Republics, held at Rio de Janeiro in January of this year.

The following officials are cooperating in the organization of this Conference:

Excmo. Sr. Ing. Marte R. Gómez, Secretary of Agriculture of Mexico.

Sr. Ing. Alfonso González Gallardo, Assistant Secretary of Agriculture of Mexico.

Sr. Dr. José Figueroa, Chief of the Livestock Institute of the Department of Agriculture of Mexico, and Chairman of the Organizing Committee of the Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture.

Sr. Lic. Manuel Santos Rowe, Secretary of the Organizing Committee.

Sr. Ing. Gonzalo Blanco Macías, Agricultural Attaché of the Embassy of Mexico in the United States.

Mr. José L. Colom, Chief, Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union.

Latin American safety achievements in 1941

Outstanding safety achievements in Latin America during 1941 by five airlines, fourteen persons, and two industrial concerns were honored by the Inter-American Safety Council at a luncheon in New York on March 6.

The five airlines—Compañía Mexicana de Aviación, S. A., Aerovías Nacionales de Colombia, Compañía Nacional Cubana de Aviación, S. A., Pan American-Grace Airways, and the Western Division of Pan American Airways—were given awards for flying a total of more than 70,000,000 passenger miles during 1941 without a single fatality. These companies serve Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Chile, Bolivia, Argentina,

Cuba, and Venezuela (also Trinidad), and the safety record was established by them in their regularly scheduled commercial operations over 10,833,000 route miles.

The Mexican Ambassador to the United States, Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, received the award for the Mexican airline; the Colombian Consul General in New York, Señor Abel Cruz Santos, accepted the Colombian company's award; and the Cuban Consul General in New York, Señor Roberto Hernández, represented the Cuban airline at the ceremonies. Captain Harold R. Harris, vice president of Pan American-Grace Airways, and Mr. E. Balluder, manager of the Western Division of Pan American Airways, received the awards for their respective companies.

The Mexican, Colombian, and Cuban awards were transmitted through the embassies to the governments, to be presented later in the capitals of the respective republics to officials of the air companies.

Gold medals and life-saving certificates were presented, *in absentia*, to fourteen men, all Latin American power company employees, who saved lives during 1941 by the use of artificial respiration. Two industrial concerns received awards for completing more than one million accident-free man-hours during 1941. The Compañía Cubana de Electricidad operated 2,496,280 man-hours without accident and the Sierras Bayas Plant of the Portland Cement Company of Argentina, 1,142,919 man-hours.



PRESENTATION OF THE MARCONI MEMORIAL SERVICE AWARD TO THE
PAN AMERICAN UNION

Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, received from George W. Bailey, President of the International Amateur Radio Union, a commemorative tablet presented by the Veteran Wireless Operators Association.

Marconi Memorial Service Award for 1942

On February 21, 1942, the Pan American Union, as the representative of the twenty-one American Republics, was given the 1942 Marconi Memorial Service Award by the Veteran Wireless Operators Association. The award was bestowed upon the American Republics in recognition of their use of wireless communications in contributing to the greater development of better relations among themselves.

In accepting the award on behalf of the Pan American Union, Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General, expressed the Union's deep appreciation for the high honor thus conferred upon its member countries and praised the work of radio operators in the development of closer ties between the nations of the Americas. "With each succeeding year," said Dr. Rowe, "the Pan American Union, in its capacity as the official organization of the twenty-one republics of this continent, is making increasing use of wireless communication in all its manifestations, and I feel certain that the years to come will witness an ever-broadening use of this great and beneficent instrument in the fostering of international good will and cooperation."

In addition to the grand award, a medallion was presented by the Association to the directors of communications in each of the twenty Latin American nations, in recognition of the part they have played in broadening inter-American good will and understanding.

American Institute of Graphic Arts Book Exhibit at the Pan American Union

A collection of 200 books, representing the finest accomplishments in the art of bookmaking in the United States during the

past decade, was on display at the Pan American Union from March 17 to April 1, 1942.

The exhibit was assembled and prepared by the American Institute of Graphic Arts, with the assistance of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. Selection of the 200 books from among some 83,000 published in the United States in the last ten years was made by a jury of three experts distinguished in the field of typography and bookmaking: Henry Watson Kent, Honorary President of the American Institute of Graphic Arts and Secretary Emeritus of the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York; Bruce Rogers, outstanding typographer and book designer; and Monroe Wheeler, Director of Exhibitions and Publications of the Museum of Modern Art, New York.

The books fall into four categories: general books, children's books, textbooks, and limited editions. All were chosen as being representative of the best in design, illustration, and typography.

Assembled specifically for display in Latin America where it will, it is hoped, stimulate inter-American exchange of ideas on bookmaking, the collection will be circulated throughout the other American Republics during the next two years under the direction of the Division of Intellectual Cooperation of the Pan American Union. The books are accompanied by forty mounted panels displaying specimen pages, illustrations, bindings, and jackets of the books. Catalogues in Spanish or Portuguese, containing reproductions of the title page of each book and a brief statement of title, author, illustrator, publisher, printer, designer, and price, will be distributed wherever the books are shown.

At the opening of the exhibit at the Pan American Union on March 17, to which members of the diplomatic corps, government officials, and representatives of cul-



GRAPHIC ARTS EXHIBITION

Group at the opening of the exhibition described on page 287. From left to right, Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union; Dr. Pedro de Alba, Assistant Director; Mme. Castillo Nájera; Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, Ambassador of Mexico; Mrs. Ana del Pulgar Burke; Arthur Thompson, President of the American Institute of Graphic Arts; Reinhold F. Gehner, chairman of the organizing committee; Mrs. Concha Romero James, Chief, Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union; and L. Ronald Mansbridge, member of the organizing committee.

tural and artistic activities were invited, Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, Mexican Ambassador to the United States, made the principal address. Mr. Arthur Thompson, President of the American Institute of Graphic Arts, and Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, also gave brief talks, and a program of piano music was offered by Ana del Pulgar Burke.

At the close of the showing at the Pan American Union, the exhibit was scheduled to be moved to Mexico City for display at the new Benjamin Franklin Library.

Inter-American Highway

An act (Public Law 375, 77th Congress) authorizing the appropriation of a sum not to exceed \$20,000,000 to enable the

United States to cooperate with the governments of the Central American Republics—Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Panama—in the survey and construction of the proposed inter-American highway within the borders of those republics was approved by President Roosevelt on December 26, 1941.

The act provides that "expenditures of such sums in any such country shall be subject to the receipt of a request therefor and of satisfactory assurances from the government of that country that appropriate commitments have been made by such government to assume at least one third of the expenditures proposed to be incurred henceforth by that country and by the United States in the survey and construction of such highway within the

borders of such country." It further provides that "all expenditures by the United States under the provisions of this Act for material, equipment, and supplies shall, whenever practicable, be made for products of the United States or of the country in which such survey or construction work is being carried on."

Costa Rica was the first country to make a formal request to participate in the cooperative highway construction plan envisaged by this act. Through an exchange of notes signed on January 16, 1942, by the Secretary of State of the United States and the Costa Rican Minister of Public Works and Agriculture, it was agreed that Costa Rica will assume at least one third of the cost of the inter-American highway within its borders and that the United States will assume the remainder, or not exceeding two thirds, of the cost.

An all-weather highway has already been completed across Guatemala. During the past year substantial progress has been made in El Salvador, where a surfaced highway has been completed over a large part of the route; in Nicaragua, where the route from Sebaco to Diriamba via Managua will soon be finished; in Costa Rica; and in Panama, where the Río Hato road should be completed in the summer of 1942.

The project for an inter-American highway dates back to 1923 when the first official step toward cooperative action in the construction of such a highway was made in the form of a resolution passed by the Fifth International Conference of American States at Santiago, Chile. Since that time there have been a number of

highway conferences, several of which have had as their primary purpose the promotion of the development of the inter-American highway.

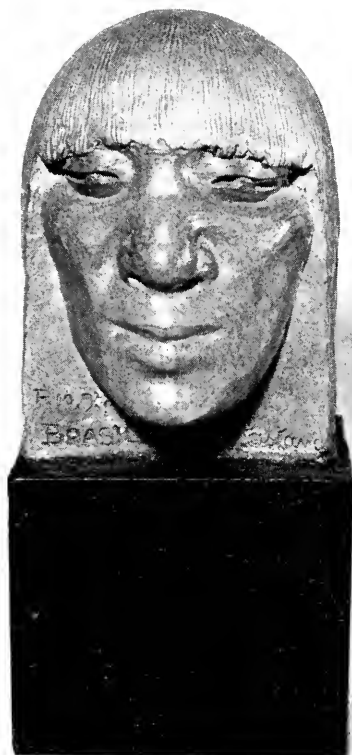
At various times the Government of the United States has appropriated sums to cover its share of survey and construction work on the proposed highway. In 1930, \$50,000 was appropriated by Congress to enable the Secretary of State to cooperate with the governments of the American Republics in carrying out a reconnaissance survey of the proposed highway route. A further sum of \$1,000,000 was appropriated in 1934 to enable the United States to cooperate with those governments in the survey and construction of the highway, subject to "the receipt of assurances satisfactory to the President from such governments of their cooperation in such survey and construction." In the same year an additional \$75,000 was made available to the Secretary of Agriculture for making location surveys, plans, and estimates. In 1938 \$34,000 from accumulated administrative funds was made available to the Secretary of Agriculture for the continuation of cooperation, while in the same year \$50,000 was appropriated to enable the Secretary of State to continue in the collaboration.

Another form of United States cooperation in the inter-American highway project is represented by the Export-Import Bank loans made in 1939 and 1940 for highway construction purposes. Nicaragua received a loan of \$2,000,000; Costa Rica, \$4,600,000; and Ecuador was to use \$900,000 of a total \$1,150,000 credit for work on the Ecuadorean portion of the inter-American highway.



EXHIBIT OF BOLIVIAN AND CHILEAN HANDICRAFT

During March there was on view at the Pan American Union an exhibit of beautiful examples of the folk arts of Bolivia and Chile, belonging to Miss Mabel MacCrimmon. Among the articles included were textiles, silver jewelry, pottery, a Bolivian Chola costume of the finest brocade and velvet (shown above), the Ekeko (the Bolivian good-luck mascot laden with miniature objects), and many fascinating dolls, dressed in dancers' costumes or usual attire. Miss MacCrimmon generously commented on her exhibit in English or Spanish to numerous groups, including many school children.



Courtesy of William H. Allen

INTER-AMERICAN CERAMICS EXHIBITION

The First Exhibition of Contemporary Ceramics of the Western Hemisphere was assembled by the Syracuse Museum of Fine Arts last October. Since then this interesting and beautiful collection has been circulating in the United States. The four pieces shown above are the work of Marino G. Perrico of Argentina, Manoel Pastana of Brazil, Celia A. Plast of Venezuela, and Olivia Calder of the United States.

SOME LATIN AMERICAN COSTUMES

This costume, shown like the others on this and the opposite page at the Brooklyn Museum exhibit, "America South of U. S.," is that of the Argentine gaucho of olden days.



Courtesy of the Brooklyn Museum



Courtesy of the Brooklyn Museum

TARASCAN WOMAN, MEXICO

A WOMAN OF ATITLÁN, GUATEMALA

The men and women of Guatemalan Indian communities wear costumes peculiar to each place.



Courtesy of the Brooklyn Museum



Courtesy of the Brooklyn Museum

A MAN FROM CHICHICASTENANGO,
GUATEMALA

Chilean Ministry of Commerce and Supplies Created

A Chilean decree of October 6, 1941, created the Ministry of Commerce and Supplies. The new Cabinet portfolio will perform the functions formerly carried out by the Bureau of Commerce of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Commerce, which will henceforth be known simply as the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Ministry of Commerce and Supplies will also coordinate and carry out all measures for encouraging national production and trade.

Haiti's commercial and financial situation, fiscal year 1940-41

In a recent issue of the *Monthly Bulletin* published by the Fiscal Department of the National Bank of the Republic of Haiti (which on October 1, 1941, assumed the functions formerly exercised by the Office of the Fiscal Representative), figures covering Haiti's foreign trade, revenues, and expenditures for the fiscal year ended September 30, 1941, were made public.

For the year as a whole, foreign trade values rose from 66.7 million gourdes¹ in 1939-40 to 70.4 million, an increase of 6 percent. Import values decreased from 39.7 million gourdes in 1939-40 to 37.2 million in 1940-41, but export values, on the other hand, increased from 27.0 million in the former year to 33.3 million in the latter fiscal period. Certain specific export products, notably coffee, cacao, bananas, and sisal, increased considerably in both quantity and value. Cotton, logwood, and raw-sugar exports decreased somewhat in both quantity and value.

¹One gourde equals twenty cents, U. S. currency, and the gourde is by law exchangeable on demand and without expense at the fixed rate of five gourdes for one dollar, U. S.

In 1940-41 the United States took 87.9 percent of Haitian exports, the British Commonwealth 6.0 percent, and other countries 6.1 percent. These figures compare with 52 percent, 30 percent, and 18 percent, respectively, for the previous fiscal period.

An increase in revenues during the month of September 1941 of almost 11 percent over the preceding September carried total governmental receipts for the fiscal year 1940-41 to an amount approximately 56,500 gourdes above total receipts during the fiscal year 1939-40. The yield from the various sources of revenue for the entire fiscal year 1940-41 compares with the 1939-40 period as follows:

Sources of revenue, 1940-41 and 1939-40

Revenue source	1940-41	1939-40
Customs:	<i>Gourdes</i>	<i>Gourdes</i>
Import duties.....	18,355,240	18,291,270
Export duties.....	3,067,543	2,861,940
Miscellaneous.....	43,655	74,077
Total customs...	21,466,438	21,227,287
Internal revenues.....	4,878,926	5,245,954
Miscellaneous.....	361,559	183,473
Internal Revenue Service charge on communal receipts.....	222,960	216,696
Grand total.....	26,929,883	26,873,410

The 1940-41 increase in customs receipts was about 1.1 percent of 1939-40 receipts, while the decrease in internal revenues was about 7 percent. The more important decreases in the latter occurred in the registration, identity card, and occupational license fees, irrigation and land rentals, and the excise taxes on cigarettes, lard substitutes, salt, and alcohol. However, revenue receipts from excise taxes on gasoline and vinous liquors, and from postage stamps, income tax, radio tax, chauffeur licenses, and water service showed appreciable increases.

The treasury balance at the end of the fiscal year 1940-41 was substantially better than at the end of the previous fiscal year. Disbursements for 1940-41 showed a decrease of 2,913,000 gourdes, or 10.2 percent, from the previous year. Although there was but a very small increase in revenues in 1940-41 as compared with 1939-40, this decrease in disbursements resulted in an operating surplus of 1,364,000 gourdes, and at the end of the year there was an unobligated treasury surplus of 1,858,000 gourdes.

The Republic's gross public debt as of September 30, 1941, was 68,096,000 gourdes, as compared with 60,872,000 on the same date in 1940. All debt service is now being met in full.¹ The increase in the public debt was wholly due to expenditures under the public works contract, the total amount spent on public works during the year having been 7,254,000 gourdes.

Armour Research Foundation to make industrial survey in Argentina

Announcement was recently made by J. B. Thomas, United States representative of the Argentine Trade Promotion Corporation, that the Armour Research Foundation had been commissioned by the Corporation to make an industrial survey of Argentina, including its raw materials and its products. The Foundation, which is located at and affiliated with the Illinois Institute of Technology in Chicago, will send a field party of three scientists to Argentina to spend from six months to a year making the survey.

This will be the first independent, non-commercial survey ever made in Argentina, according to officials of the Argentine Trade Promotion Corporation. The main objective will be to study raw materials

with a view toward determining their possibilities for immediate development for both export and use in domestic industry, while the long-range aim will be the ultimate improvement of Argentina's export-import situation.

The groundwork for the survey was laid when the Director of the Armour Research Foundation, Mr. Harold Vagtborg, visited Argentina on the recent National Research Council South American tour of industrial exploration. Dr. Francis Godwin, Assistant Director of the Research Foundation, was named to head the field party, plans were carefully mapped out, and work was expected to begin by the end of March. The work of the field party will be coordinated with further study, in the laboratories of the Foundation in Chicago, of specific projects suggested by the field party; in fact, it is expected that a large portion of the Foundation's scientific staff will be involved in the survey.

The Armour Research Foundation, which was established in 1936 for the purpose of rendering "a research and experimental engineering service to industry," has become widely known for its work, particularly through such activities as the Antarctic Snow Cruiser and the colloidal fuel experiments that resulted in a stock model automobile being driven through the streets of Chicago powered by "liquid coal."

Government alcohol monopoly in Paraguay

A recent presidential decree (No. 10,021, December 10, 1941) authorized the establishment of the Paraguayan Alcohol Corporation and set up rules and regulations for its functioning, thus making the country's alcohol industry a State monopoly. The preamble of the decree stressed several reasons for this action on

¹ See BULLETIN, October 1941, p. 604.

the part of the Government, such as the recent lax and unsatisfactory condition of the industry, tax evasion on the part of producers, the fiscal and social importance to the country of alcohol production and sale, and the desirability of adequate direct control over the industry and the quality of the product.

The Corporation is composed of the State, the alcohol manufacturers already registered in the Internal Revenue Bureau, and those who may in the future be registered there. Its capital is fixed at 100,000,000 pesos, made up of a State contribution of 30,000,000 pesos, 30 percent of the net profits, and any other ordinary, extraordinary, and special resources that may be created. Excepted from the provisions of the decree are manufacturers of motor fuel alcohol, low alcoholic content drinks, and other drinks and liquors made of alcohol obtained from the Corporation.

The Corporation will cooperate with the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry in all matters pertaining to the production and acquisition of raw materials for the manufacture of the various types of alcohol, and the quality of the finished product will be checked by the Central Laboratory of the aforementioned Ministry.

Net profits will be distributed as follows: 40 percent to the State; 20 percent in pro rata amounts to producers; 5 percent to the Directors (of whom there are five, three of them elected by the manufacturers and two named by the Executive Power); 5 percent to the Central Laboratory of the Ministry of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry; and 30 percent to a reserve fund after the necessary contribution has been made to the capital investment.

The creation of the monopoly is expected to result in appreciable economic benefits

to the nation, greater efficiency in the industry, and a vastly improved quality in the finished product.

Paraguayan highway construction

The Government of Paraguay has recently been taking steps to further the highway construction program contained in President Morínigo's Three-Year Plan. The sum of 600,000 pesos was allocated to the Ministry of Public Works for work on the Carapeguá-Tabapy highway. The completion of this road is expected to lead to a more thorough and profitable development of the agricultural zone that lies between and about these two points in the southwestern part of the country.

The expanding highway construction program has made the acquisition of additional tools and implements a pressing need. To meet the situation, the Ministry of Public Works was recently authorized to spend the sum of 3,000,000 pesos in the purchase of such equipment. Once an adequate supply of machinery and tools is on hand, the Government anticipates that road construction will be facilitated in all parts of the country.

Agricultural intensification program in Panama

At a recent meeting of the National Board of Agriculture (Junta Nacional de Agricultura) of Panama, it was decided that orders for agricultural tools and equipment amounting to \$250,000 would be placed in the United States, in furtherance of the Government's agricultural intensification program for the financing of which a total sum of \$1,000,000 has been allocated.

In connection with the agricultural program, the cooperation of teachers and professors, especially teachers in secondary

and rural schools, is being sought to wage an adequate campaign of propaganda and education in the interior of the country. Teachers are being asked to help in educating the campesino as to the reasons and purposes behind the intensified agricultural program and likewise the significance of the war and its attendant problems. A series of special courses for teachers has already been inaugurated at the National Institute, to instruct them on various aspects of the proposed propaganda program.

Cuban stamp issue on Democracy in America

A Cuban decree of August 2, 1941, authorized the issuance of a series of five stamps, under the general title, *On behalf of Democracy in America*. They symbolize respectively the geographic, ethnic, economic, social, and political aspects of the Western Hemisphere.

The 1-cent stamp shows a map of the Americas, with the legend, "America, a New World"; 1,000,000 stamps of this denomination were printed.

The 3-cent stamp, of which 2,000,000 were issued, bears the portraits of Simón Bolívar of Venezuela, Abraham Lincoln of the United States, Benito Juárez of Mexico, and Antonio Maceo of Cuba, with the legend, "There is room for all races in America."

The 5-cent stamp has a design symbolic of labor, with the legend, "Labor, the Wealth of America"; there are 250,000 of this denomination.

The 10-cent stamp shows the Tree of Brotherhood (planted at the Sixth International Conference of American States, 1928), which stands in the square of the same name in Habana, in a plot of ground containing earth from all the American republics; it bears the legend,

"American Brotherhood." Two hundred fifty thousand of this denomination were printed.

The 13-cent stamp illustrates its legend, "Liberty," with a picture of the Statue of Liberty in New York harbor. The size of this issue was 500,000. The stamps went on sale in Cuba, February 23, 1942.

First summer course at the University of Habana

The opening exercises of the first summer course ever to be given at the University of Habana were held on Saturday evening, July 19, 1941, after three days of registration. During that period 192 students, 70 of whom were foreigners, enrolled for the general courses—elementary and advanced—in language and literature and in various phases of the cultural, economic, and political life of Cuba and Latin America, or for the special courses for teachers and normal school students. Dr. Rodolfo Méndez Peñate, rector (president) of the university, presided at the ceremony; among the guests of honor was the Hon. George Messersmith, Ambassador of the United States to Cuba, whose presence was particularly appropriate in view of the many students attending from the United States.

The summer session lasted for six weeks. At the closing exercises on August 30, 1941, an address of appreciation on behalf of the United States students who attended was delivered in Spanish by a young man who had not known the language before going to study at the university. He remarked that he had attended similar sessions at two universities in New York and at three abroad, some of them especially designed for foreigners, but at none had he learned so much and enjoyed the experience so greatly as he had at the University of Habana.

Steel production in Brazil, 1930-1940

The production of steel in Brazil has increased steadily during the 11-year period 1930-40, inclusive, the figure for the latter year being nearly 6.8 times that for the former, as is shown by the following table:

Year	Tons	Value ¹ (in contos de reis)
1930.....	20, 985	10, 043
1931.....	23, 130	10, 984
1932.....	34, 192	16, 796
1933.....	53, 567	24, 646
1934.....	61, 575	23, 950
1935.....	64, 231	25, 278
1936.....	73, 607	45, 311
1937.....	76, 430	56, 660
1938.....	92, 420	72, 135
1939.....	114, 095	90, 169
1940.....	141, 176	173, 174

¹ One conto equals approximately \$50.

The State of Minas Geraes is the greatest producer of steel in Brazil, its proportion of the national total being 60.5 percent, or 85,398 tons valued at 69,161 contos. Next was the State of São Paulo, with 21.7 percent of the total, or 30,130 tons worth 25,681 contos. Production in the State of Rio de Janeiro has increased appreciably; in 1940 its share was 17.6 percent of the total, or 24,834 tons valued at 15,610 contos.

National conservatories of music in Ecuador

The Ministry of Education of Ecuador supports three conservatories—in Quito, Cuenca and Guayaquil—that give free instruction in instrumental and vocal music. In 1941 there were 424 students in the Quito Conservatory, 44 in Cuenca and 299 in Guayaquil.

Thirteen different instruments are taught, the largest number of students devoting themselves to the piano and

violin. The Guayaquil Conservatory maintains a symphony orchestra of 65 pieces, played by professors and students, and a chorus of 60 voices. These two groups unite in giving two or three concerts a year. One of the piano students in the Guayaquil Conservatory received a fellowship this year at the Mannes Music School in New York.

United States National Indian Institute

An Executive Order signed by President Roosevelt on November 1, 1941, established in the Department of the Interior a National Indian Institute for the United States, in pursuance to Article X of the convention for the creation of an Inter-American Indian Institute that was opened for signature at Mexico City on November 1, 1940, signed on behalf of the United States on November 29, 1940, and ratified by the Senate on May 26, 1941.

The new Institute will be affiliated with the Inter-American Indian Institute, and in general terms its duties will be to maintain liaison and interchange among, and collaborate with, Federal, State, and private agencies, learned societies, foundations, and scholars in the United States and the other American countries and with the Inter-American Indian Institute in the fields of administration, research, and studies relating to the Indian; to direct, the preparation and publication of information on Indian administration in the United States of interest to the other American republics; to assemble and prepare library and bibliographic material on Indian problems; to collaborate with the Inter-American Indian Institute in planning for the Inter-American Conference on Indian Life; and to submit an annual report to the Inter-American Indian Institute.

The Institute is to be managed by a Director who, together with other necessary employees, is to be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior. (John Collier, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, has been named for this post.) For the purpose of recommending policies to be followed by the Institute, a Policy Board is also established by the Executive Order, to be composed of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs; two or more members, who may be public officers or private citizens, at least one of whom shall be an Indian, to be appointed by the Secretary of the Interior; and one representative each to be designated by the Secretary of State, Secretary of Agriculture, the Smithsonian Institution, and the Librarian of Congress. In addition to these, one representative each may be designated as a member of the Board by the National Research Council, Social Science Research Council, and the American Council of Learned Societies.

The Chairman of the Board, who is to be named by the Secretary of the Interior, may, with the Board's approval, establish advisory committees and designate as affiliates of the Institute learned societies and other organizations concerned with the study of the Indian and Indian welfare.

Experimental cotton cultivation in Ecuador

Fifty pounds of Stoneville No. 5A cotton seed were recently sent to the Ministry of Agriculture in Ecuador for experimental cultivation in the Province of Manabí. This variety of cotton was given careful study for several years by the Cotton Experimental Station of the State of Louisiana and was found to have high germinating power, to yield a good crop, and to be both pest-resistant and easily adaptable to dif-

ferent soils and climates. Its fibers are of a length similar to the fibers imported for Ecuador's cotton textile industry.

Manabí's climate and soil are regarded by the Ministry of Agriculture as particularly well suited to cotton growing and if experiments with the Stoneville No. 5A seed prove satisfactory, the Ministry will endeavor to encourage a more extensive cultivation of that variety.

Inter-American student interchange fostered by Argentina and Colombia

Students in the American nations have been offered additional opportunities to become acquainted with their fellows in other countries by measures recently adopted in Argentina and Colombia.

The Argentine National Commission of Culture has approved the creation of ten scholarships, one for a student from each of ten countries: Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Mexico, Peru, Paraguay, Uruguay, and Venezuela. The governments of these republics have been asked to select the students who will go to Argentina in 1942.

The Governing Board of the National University of Colombia, in Bogotá, agreed that from 1941 on, places will be reserved for 40 students from the other American republics. To be eligible for admittance under this arrangement, the candidate must be a native American. A student who has completed high school and whose certificates have been accepted by the Ministry of National Education will not be required to take entrance examinations. The enrollment fees to be paid by such students will be the minimum set by the university. Application should be made through the diplomatic or consular offices of Colombia in the student's country.

NECROLOGY

EDUARDO HAY.—Mexican engineer, soldier, revolutionist, diplomat. Received degree in engineering at University of Notre Dame, South Bend, Indiana, 1901. In 1910 he became allied with Francisco I. Madero and the Mexican Revolution; in 1911 was appointed Madero's Chief of Staff and accompanied Madero on his triumphal entry into Mexico City; served as Inspector General of Police and Inspector General of Consulates in South America. In 1912 elected Deputy to the National Congress. In 1913 participated in the Constitutional Movement in Sinaloa as Chief of Staff of General Ramón Iturbide and in March 1914 in the conflict with Huerta received 14 wounds and suffered the loss of one eye. In later years he served successively as Minister to Italy, Japan, Chile, Peru, Guatemala, and France. Occupied posts of Under-Secretary of Communications and Public Works; Director of Public Welfare of Mexico City; Director of Customs; in 1935 appointed Secretary of Foreign Affairs by President

Cárdenas, and served in that capacity until December 1940. Author of many original literary works, official reports, and translations from other languages, including the *Rubaiyat of Omar Khayyam*. Died at the age of 65 years at Mexico City, December 27, 1941.

LEOPOLDO RUIZ Y FLORES.—Mexican ecclesiastic. Educated at the Colegio Pío Latino in Michoacán, Colegio Clerical de San José, Mexico City, and Pontifical Gregorian University, Rome. Obtained degree of Doctor of Philosophy, 1883; of Theology, 1887; and of Canon Law, 1889. Served first as parish priest in Tacubaya, D. F. Appointed Bishop of León, Guanjuato, 1900; Archbishop of Monterrey, Nuevo León, 1907; Archbishop of Morelia, Michoacán, since 1912, the 31st successor to Don Vasco de Quiroga, first Bishop of Michoacán. Named Assistant to the Holy See, 1925, and served as Apostolic Delegate to Mexico, 1929–37. Died at the age of 76 years at Morelia, Mexico, on December 12, 1941.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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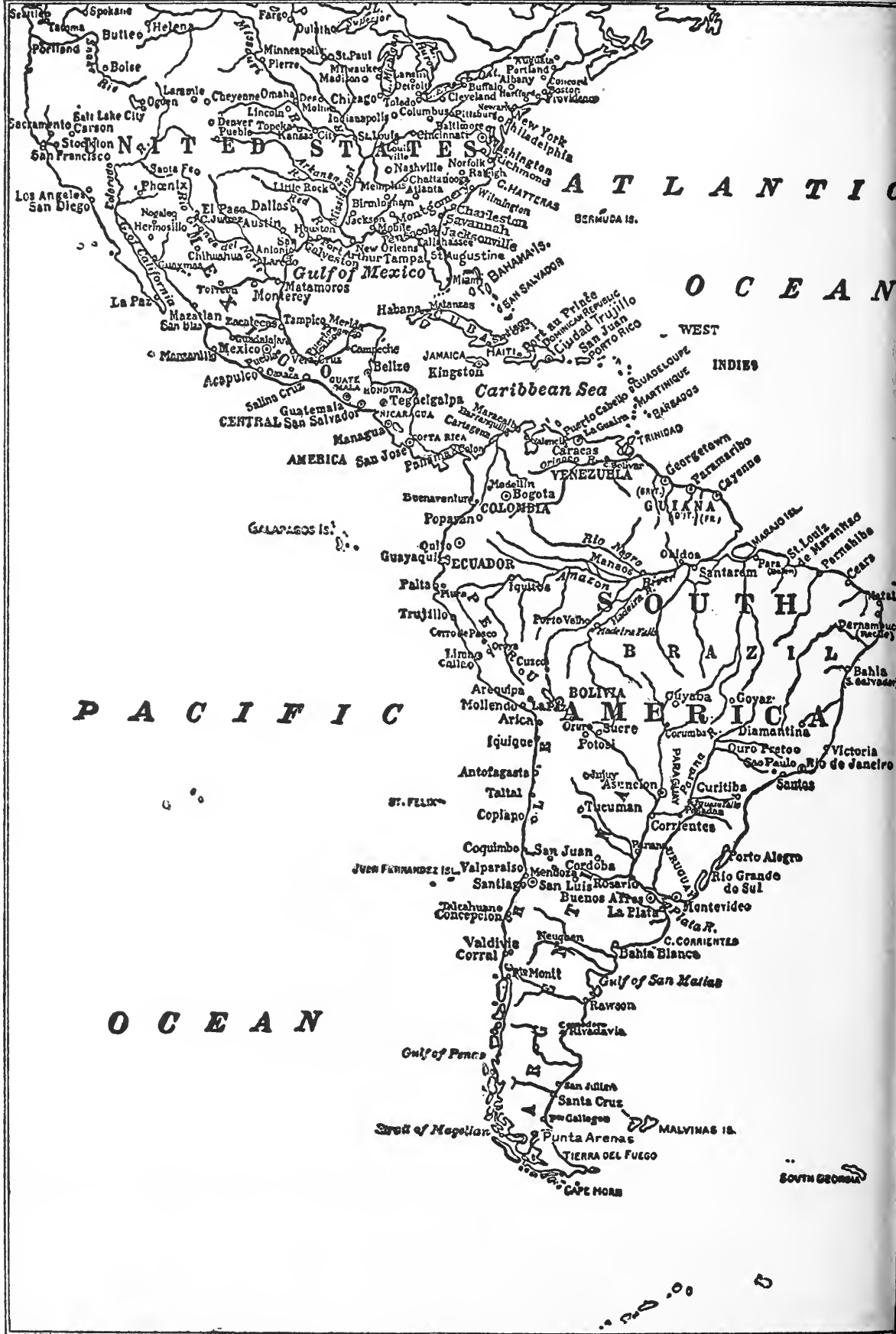
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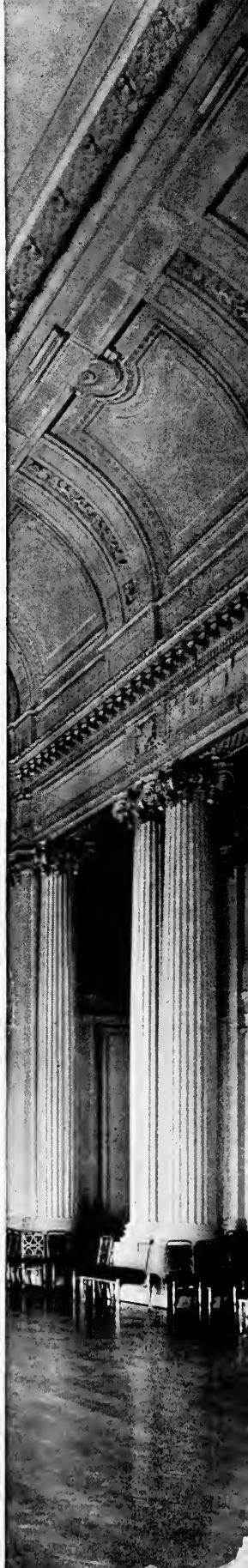


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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: HALL OF THE AMERICAS, PAN AMERICAN UNION





Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

ABOVE TIMOTES IN THE VENEZUELAN ANDES

The beautiful mesas and terraces around Timotes were laid down by the Mototán River during the Ice Age. Cultivation extends to an altitude of more than 10,000 feet.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXVI, No. 6



JUNE 1942

Timotes, Venezuela

RAYMOND E. CRIST

MANY of the villages or small towns along the Llanos-Andes border in western Venezuela, such as Barinas, Ciudad Bolívar (Pedraza) and Guanare, have declined greatly in importance since colonial times. However, those on the northwestern slopes of the Venezuelan Andes—Timotes, Valera, Tovar, and others—are, and have been for centuries, thriving little centers of activity. A brief study of the small Andean town of Timotes, 9° north of the equator, might make it possible to determine why it has continued to have a *raison d'être* through the centuries.

It was in 1559 or 1560 that Captain Maldonado, after conquering the Indians in the region around Mérida, founded the town of that name and appointed a judge and a municipal council to keep the machinery of municipal government working smoothly. Shortly thereafter,

he followed the Chama River to its headwaters, crossed the barren páramo of Mucuchíes, whose altitude is about 14,000 feet, and descended the valley of the Mototán River, where he subdued the Timotes Indians. He set aside certain areas, called *Resguardos de los Indios*, for the exclusive use of the rather backward Indians inhabiting the valley, and these lands were worked by them largely on a communal basis till they were divided in the latter part of the 19th century. But most of the good land was granted to the Spanish conquerors, and the occupants became serfs or peons on these great estates. In 1619 Timotes was founded in the Mototán Valley by Fray Francisco Carmelo, under the name of Valle de los Timotes from the Indians living thereabouts; this was finally shortened to the present appellation.

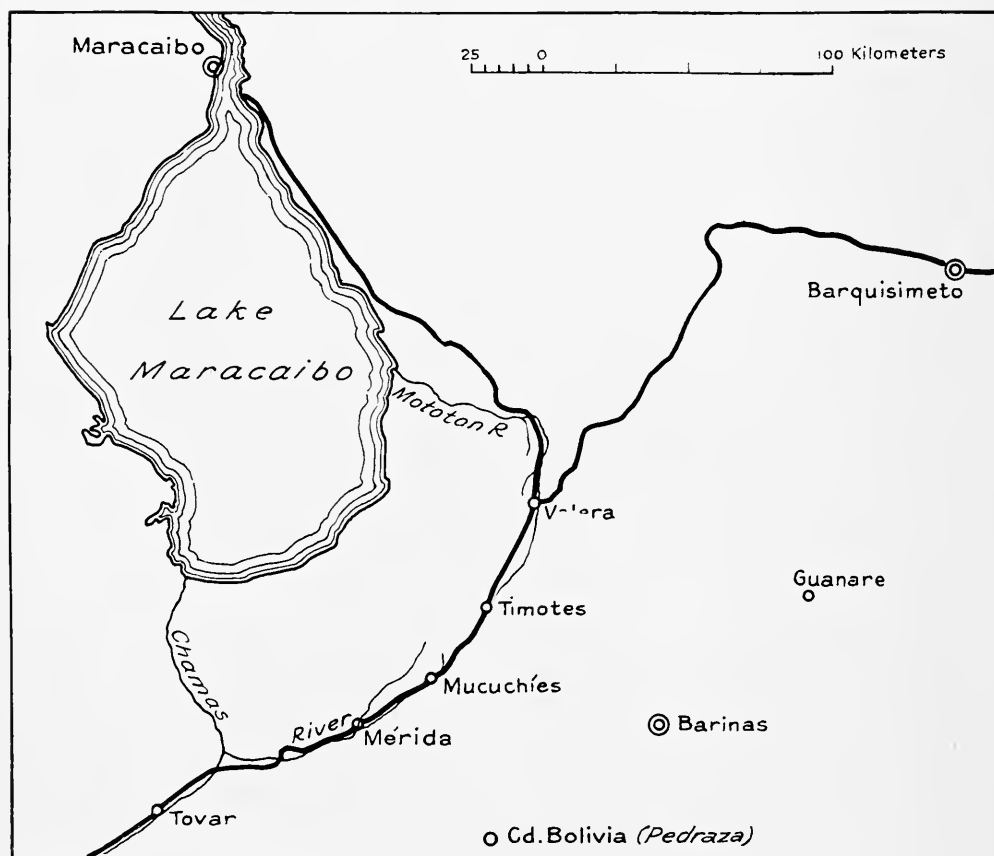
The roads leading to the Venezuelan Andes, across the trade wind desert of the State of Lara and through the tropical rain forest along the southeastern shores of

The field work on which this study is based was made possible by grants from the John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation and the Graduate Research Board of the University of Illinois.

Lake Maracaibo, converge on the mesa of Valera. From there a single narrow road follows the valley of the Mototán River to its headwaters at the mountain pass in the high páramo of Mucuchíes. A short distance upstream from Valera the valley becomes narrow and V-shaped and at about 6,000 feet the traveler might imagine himself in the Alps slightly below the timber line. However, instead of finding alpine huts and grazing animals he comes upon the thriving little town of Timotes, of some 3,000 inhabitants.

The beautiful mesas and terraces around Timotes are glaciofluvial deposits laid

down by the Mototán River and its tributaries during the Ice Age, when the amount of precipitation was markedly greater than now, as indicated by the millions of cubic feet of sand and gravel which these streams transported and deposited at that time. Because of the nearness to the equator the Andean glaciers terminated at relatively high elevations and as a result formed glaciofluvial deposits which are found even in the intercordilleran valleys. It may be mentioned by way of contrast that at the same time the Alpine glaciers of Europe extended far beyond the mountains into the Vorland, gouging out overdeepened



PART OF WESTERN VENEZUELA SHOWING TIMOTES AND ITS MAIN HIGHWAY CONNECTIONS

valleys such as those now occupied by the large Swiss and Italian lakes, famous as resorts. Possibly the various terrace levels observed in the Andes were developed as a result of changing base levels as the mountains rose. As the ice melted away and as the amount of fall of the streams increased the underloaded postglacial rivers vigorously cut their V-shaped valleys in the alluvial flats, the remnants of which form the terraces so important in the agricultural economy of today.

At Timotes the sun is well to the south about 6 months of the year, nearly overhead for about 2, and to the north about 4. In the course of the year the town is alternately in the path of the northeast trades and of the doldrum belt. The wind régime is complicated by the presence of the high mountain range to the south which rather effectively shuts out the southeast trades toward the end of June. The result is that the short dry season—*Veranito de San Juan*—experienced in a large part of Venezuela at that time is not felt in Timotes. It is reported that occasionally, from April to July, when the winds from the south are forced over the mountain range to the low pressure area of the doldrum belt, a wind resembling the Föhn or Chinook occurs. This wind, known as the *catarata* (cataract) or *viento del páramo*, may blow very hard for several days, during which it has a marked drying effect, makes people generally uncomfortable, and burns even the tough skins of the Indians. The local inhabitants, accustomed to the cool down-valley breezes of night and early morning, are always puzzled when this hot dry wind begins to blow. (A wind of the same origin occasionally blows for a day or so at a time in the Chama valley during December, January, and February.)

Precipitation is irregularly distributed throughout the year, but is usually lightest

between December and March, inclusive, and heaviest during June–July and October–November. In June–July the belt of greatest insolation is north of the Andes and convectional rains are at a maximum; by October–November the northeast trades, blowing toward the doldrum belt, then south of the Andes, are concentrated by this valley, which acts as a funnel. Heavy orographic precipitation is the result. The following rainfall data, for the years 1935 to 1939 inclusive, are the only ones available:

	mm.
1935.....	1,384.00
1936.....	1,427.00
1937.....	697.25
1938.....	1,437.00
1939.....	618.75

The extreme uncertainty in the amount of precipitation can be seen from these figures. In 1936 and 1938 over twice as much rain fell as in 1937 and 1939. Although it is dangerous to generalize from so few data, there would seem to be little basis for the current belief that the total amount of rainfall is decreasing each year.

That immediate runoff after rains is great as a result of extensive deforestation, especially on the steeper slopes, is a foregone conclusion. But if it were not for the great permeability of the extensive alluvial fans and terraces erosion would make this valley almost uninhabitable within a few years. After a rain that made a torrent a foot deep of the main street in Timotes the streams running across the alluvial terraces near town were only slightly discolored and carried very little, if any, more water than before the downpour. The runoff had been practically nil. But streams, originally permanent, whose headwaters were formerly in forested areas, become intermittent when the forests are felled, thus decreasing the amount of fertile terrace land capable of being irrigated. The less



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

AN EARLY MORNING VIEW OF TIMOTES

prosperous farmers continually clear and burn over new plots whenever the yields get low in the old ones, without thought of the damage water erosion will do. Unless this practice is stopped tens of thousands of acres of good timber land will in a few years change to gullied, barren slopes.

The basis of the economic life of Timotes is agriculture. Almost any middle latitude plant does well here. The traveller from the north is thrilled to see peppermint growing wild along the trails—with cactus and banana plants nearby. Many farmers have prospered on 20 to 30 acres of land near the village, where the soil is good and the climate mild. These farmers were willing and financially able to undertake changes in farming techniques, and those who have gone into the vegetable business have prospered, according to local standards. Manure, brought from

the stables in Timotes, is freely used. Irrigation is practiced in many fields on the alluvial fans. The soil is improved by removing large stones which are either piled up or used in the construction of house foundations or fences. Most of the produce raised near Timotes is sold in Maracaibo, to which one producer has for years sent on the average more than 5 tons every week. A list of the vegetables shipped indicates the great variety of crops grown: potatoes, lettuce, carrots, turnips, beets, parsnips, celery, oyster plants, onions, cabbage, cauliflower, rhubarb, radishes, Brussels sprouts, string beans, endive, leeks, parsley and artichokes. At present Maracaibo is the sole market, because the oil companies are able and willing to pay the high cost of shipment on vegetables. There are no other large population centers in the hot country

within shipping distance. The Venezuelan eats few vegetables and much time must elapse before his dietary habits could change. Failure of the Maracaibo market would shift the emphasis from perishable vegetables to the more staple crops such as potatoes and onions, which would find a limited local sale because the purchasing power of the mountaineers will remain very low for a long time.

Wherever corn (maize) is grown peas are planted with it under a system of interculture. The entire pea vine is gathered before the corn ripens, dried in the sun and kept in a corner of the house. Later the peas are shelled when the family finds time. For this process the vines are placed on untanned cowhides over a layer of straw and flailed with sticks. The strokes are gentle until most of the peas have been shaken to the lower mass of vines and hulls. When the threshing has been completed the hulls and stems are spread upon the field as fertilizer, and the peas are sacked. The corn is gathered as soon as it matures—in from 6 to 11 months, depending on the altitude of the field and the various other factors to be discussed later. It is spread on cowhides in the sun each day till thoroughly dry; this prevents sprouting in the damp, thick-walled dwellings.

The slopes of the valley show sharply contrasting land-use patterns as a result of different degrees of exposure to sunlight. The phenomenon of adret and ubac slopes is as marked as in the Alps. At the town itself the shady (ubac) slopes of the right bank of the Mototán River are forested almost to the river bed, whereas the sunny (adret) slopes on the left bank are intensively cultivated from the base to an elevation exceeding 10,000 feet on some of the east-facing slopes. These receive the morning rays of the sun, whereas the west-facing slopes remain in shadow several early

morning hours. When the sun shines all day the ubac receives the hot afternoon sun, but more often than not clouds drift up valley in the afternoon, in which case it is in shadow most of the day.

The general impression that the *caliente*, *templada*, and *fría* (hot, temperate, and cold) climatic zones are always separated along the contour, and almost by a line, must be corrected. The number of hours of exposure to the sun's rays, the angle of slope, the physical properties of the soil, may, if favorable, extend the *templada* climate, for instance, 2,000 feet or more above its normal upper limit; unfavorable conditions may correspondingly depress the limit. The existence of altitudinal life zones is not denied; they are quite obvious. It should be emphasized that, because of various factors, these zones interpenetrate each other in such a way as to produce a highly complex agricultural landscape, the physiognomy of which is, to be sure, partly determined by economic processes. The modern automobile highway is an important factor in conditioning agricultural trends. As one leaves the Transandine Highway (*Carretera Trasandina*) and the easy transportation facilities that it offers, subsistence agriculture gradually takes the place of that dependent on the market.

There is as much difference between the market farmer near Timotes and the self-sufficient farmer at the upper limit of cultivation as there is between the prosperous dairy farmer of Wisconsin and the share-cropper of the poorer areas in the southern United States. The standard of living of the self-sufficient mountaineers is very low. They have little leisure because the process of getting barely enough to eat absorbs all their time. Nature at 10,000 feet is niggardly in the extreme. Wheat ripens in 6 months, but corn takes 9 to 11 months to ripen, and then produces only 2- or



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

INTENSE CULTIVATION NEAR THE VILLAGE

Irrigation is practiced on many alluvial fields, where a great variety of vegetables is grown for the Maracaibo market.

3-inch nubbins. Potatoes take almost a year to mature, and are about the size of golf balls. Fertilizer is not used because commercial fertilizers are too expensive and manures are not available. Farmers and stockmen constitute two distinct groups, occupying different altitudinal zones. When productivity declines the fields are simply allowed to lie fallow (*barbechado*) for a year. This recuperative period cannot be long, as the land must be worked to its productive limit.

People struggling for a living under such marginal conditions must become inured to hard work early in life. Large families are the rule. There are new plots to clear, firewood to cut, crops to plant or weed by hand, in which work all members of the family join. Errands must be run,

water carried to the house. In spite of the filth and close quarters the infant mortality rate is lower than in the lowlands. An occasional Sunday may be a day of rest or visiting. Father cuts the children's hair, and uses a fine tooth comb with dexterity whenever necessary. The smaller children lie about on untanned cowhides, getting the benefit of the actinic rays of the sun, which are very strong at these altitudes. One such family consisted of 11 living children, the oldest girl being about 15 years of age (few people know their ages). They lived in a one-room house which had no glass windows. Some houses have only a door; others have an aperture to serve as a window which is commonly boarded up. As a protection from the wind the door

opens toward the face of the mountain instead of toward the magnificent view up the Mototán Valley. The never-to-be-forgotten remark of a father in reply to the question of how all his children would make a living when they grew up, was "Dígame Vd."—that is, "You tell me." This man had migrated to his marginal farm from Pueblo Llano, higher still, where conditions of life were—and still are—even harder than at the upper limits of cultivation on the shady side of the Mototán Valley. The few pennies needed to buy sugar, salt, matches, and a few yards of cloth are obtained by carrying heavy loads of firewood or an occasional spare bushel of potatoes to market in Timotes. Clothes become so patched and dirty that it is difficult to tell their original

quality or color. One housewife was almost overcome with joy when given the equivalent of a nickel for a cup of coffee. At this upper limit of cultivation, miserly Nature affords these people the barest subsistence.

These marginal agricultural areas of the *tierra fría* are great human reservoirs. Health conditions are relatively good; air and water are pure and cases of malaria and dysentery are almost unknown. Consequently the population increase in this agricultural region is faster than the possible increase in the production of food, and as the pressure of population increases emigration downward is the only safety valve. The robust energetic Andinos are in distinct contrast to the sallow people of the malarial lowlands. Only 4.83 percent



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

HARVESTING WHEAT

After the small sheaves are dried, they are placed on a threshing floor and the grain trodden out by horses or oxen.

of the population of the State of Mérida as a whole consists of immigrants from other states, whereas 7.43 percent of its population has emigrated to other states. This trend is even more marked in the Andean State of Trujillo.¹

A few hundred feet above Timotes maize gradually reaches its altitudinal limit, but wheat grows several thousand feet higher. It is sown broadcast from March to May after the field has been scratched a few inches deep by a plow of the old Roman type, drawn by oxen. The grains are covered by another plowing; some are covered too deep by soil or rocks, some are not covered at all. The result is an uneven stand and a very poor yield, but considering the extremely primitive methods of

planting, the rocky soil and steep slopes, it is surprising that the harvest is as good as it is—from 5 to 12 units harvested for every one planted. Both men and women work in the field, cutting the grain a handful at a time with a sickle, and piling it in small sheaves tied with wheat straw. The head of the family sometimes acts as a gleaner. The sheaves are put together, tied with a rope and carried on human backs to the loft of the house or to the stack. When cured the sheaves are placed on a threshing floor (*era de trillar*) and the grain separated from the straw by driving horses or oxen round and round over it. The straw is removed with a wooden fork and the grain separated from the chaff by winnowing in the wind. Most of the small amount of wheat produced is milled and consumed locally.

¹ A. Uslar Pietri, "*Demografía Venezolana*," Caracas, 1938, page 11.



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

TILE KILN IN THE MOUNTAINS

In the higher altitudes the land is so poor that people eke out their existence by primitive industries.



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

A SUNDAY HAIRCUT

The winding Transandine Highway, down which the farmers of the Motatán valley send most of their produce to market, may be seen disappearing in the distance beyond this highland farm.

The holdings are generally quite small, from 10 to 25 acres being a good-sized farm. Due to the great number of gullies and the abrupt changes in the angle of slope, the individual plots under cultivation are very small. Only the plots near the town are farmed by people living in the urban agglomeration itself. The area as a whole is one of disseminated settlement *par excellence*. The physiognomy of the fields depends upon the type of ownership and upon the economic background. Near the town the fields are larger than elsewhere and the agriculture slightly more intensive; the manure obtained from the stables in town is used to improve the fields. A kilometer or more away the fields are smaller, steeper, and less fertile. The agricultural technique is more exten-

sive and the whole cultural landscape takes on a shabbier appearance. Much of the land on the steeper slopes, both in the self-sufficient and in the farming-for-market areas, is passing from small to large owners, who devote it to stock raising, chiefly milch cows. As pasture land it is not only already giving better results than when it was under cultivation, but it will thus continue to be economically valuable for an indefinite period of time.

The site of Timotes, an alluvial terrace only slightly above the river, is not ideal. It is quite steep. But it is adequate for any possible growth, and the town is well located, both with regard to getting the early morning sun and to the water supply. Had it been built on any other available nearby site, the problem of water

supply would have been somewhat more difficult of solution.

The village itself is quite similar in plan as well as in function to many a European market town. Dwellings and general stores, or combinations of the two, may be found in all parts of town. Some families who have saved a little money from market gardening rent their farms to poor mountaineers from the marginal lands and retire to this urban center to enjoy the limited social intercourse and meager modern comforts which a town of this size can offer. And some of the poor families from the high mountain areas, unable to make a living, move in to town temporarily, on the way to some place where the chances of successful agriculture are better. They live in the cheaper houses at the edge of town, particularly on the street farthest from the river. This is the only evidence of what might be considered zoning.

Specialization is not far advanced. There are a few artisans for odd jobs around town. There is no bookstore, nor a really adequate drugstore. There is only one barber, whose brisk day is Sunday, his patrons being those who haven't visited him in 5 or 6 months. There are no cafés. The only local industry is the milling of corn and wheat in water-driven mills.

Timotes has long played a role as a converging point of mule trails over which flow the agricultural products not only of the immediate countryside, but of many peasant villages removed from the Mototán Valley, such as Pueblo Llano, Las Piedras and Piñango. Trains of pack mules arrive in the evening and the produce is bought by the local merchants to be shipped later when they have

accumulated a truckload. Early the next morning, in the cold down-valley breeze, the shivering muleteers are to be seen feeding their animals, and drinking cups of hot black coffee in preparation for the return trip. As the pack train starts up the winding mountain trail the bell on the lead mules tinkles clear in the crisp morning air, and the traveller remembers sun-drenched mornings in the high Alps.

Before the construction of the Trans-andine Highway Timotes was an important halting place for the pack trains crossing the Andes, from Valera via Timotes and Mucuchíes to Mérida. The hostelry business that flourished on this traffic has ceased to exist now that produce leaves the town on wheels instead of on muleback. But the town is still a stopping place for many private motor cars and most buses, whose patrons get a cup of hot coffee or a meal. The magnificent scenery, the chill bracing air, and the excellent meals attract many people from the hot country for week ends and vacations. Thus the loss to the hostelries as a stopping place in the through pack-train service is offset by an increase in tourism.

To summarize: Timotes, unlike the towns on the southeastern slopes of the Venezuelan Andes, is tied to a good market in Maracaibo by motor road. It enjoys a mild climate and is easily accessible to people living in the hot lowland areas. It is a converging point of the mule trails from the Andean communities at higher elevations and is on the main Caracas-Bogotá highway. Hence, Timotes has not one but many *raisons d'être* and will, in spite of changes, continue to function as the adequate urban expression of a multiple-zoned geographic unit in the Andes.

Juan Antonio Ríos, President of the Republic of Chile

JUAN ANTONIO RÍOS, President of the Republic of Chile, who on April 2, 1942, took office for a six-year term, was born November 10, 1888, in Cañete, in the Province of Arauco. His parents were Anselmo Ríos Gallegos, who died when his son was six months old, and Lucinda Morales de Gallegos. Señor Ríos received his elementary and secondary education in the public schools of Cañete, Lebu and Concepción. After taking part of his course at the Law School in Concepción, he transferred to Santiago and in 1914 was graduated in law and political science from the University of Chile.

The fatherless boy was obliged to help support himself while he was going through school and college; it was from the Concepción Secondary School that he received his first salary, paid him for assisting with the boarding students. Later, while studying law in the same city, he acted as a minor official for the municipality; this greatly aided his financial situation. As soon as he was admitted to the bar he was appointed a court secretary in Lebu, but ten months later he gave up that office in order to devote himself entirely to the practice of his profession.

Señor Ríos was only seventeen when he joined the Radical Party. Since then he has held all the leading positions it has to offer, rising from secretary of a publicity center to president of the Party, a place held several times. It will be remembered that it was he who presided over the general convention in 1937 when the Radicals, together with the other leftist



parties, agreed to sign the Popular Front pact. After that memorable convention he was once again elected president of his party and also became chairman of the Popular Front National Executive Committee.

It might be said that his political career really started in 1918 when he was elected a member of the Concepción city council. For three years he took part in the city government and served as local police judge. His outstanding record led his party to nominate him for deputy from

Lautaro; that same year, however, he was appointed Chargé d'Affaires and Consul General of Chile in Panama and the Canal Zone. He filled this charge admirably; but only two years later, at the end of 1923, his supporters called on him to run as candidate for deputy representing the Arauco, Lebú and Cañete district. He therefore resigned his post in the foreign service and returned to Chile to take part in the electoral race, which secured for him a seat in the Chamber of Deputies. Less than a year of congressional activity was sufficient to win him the affection and admiration of his friends and the respect of his opponents, who saw in him a fair and honest man, one who studied carefully all problems concerning the social and political development of the nation. In 1929 he was elected senator for the Arauco, Malleco and Cautín district. He continued in Congress until 1937.

Señor Ríos has been an outstanding leader in activities to improve the national economy and to promote production. In 1939 President Aguirre Cerda, who recognized his competence in banking problems, named him president of the Mortgage Credit Bank, a position that he finally gave up to become a candidate for the presidency of the Republic. Among

his many other offices have been the following: chief of the Social Welfare Division of the Mortgage Credit Bank, member of the Board of the Corporation for the Promotion of Production (a government body created after the 1939 earthquake), the Lowcost Housing Bank, and the National Mining Society, and president of the Mining Supply Company, La Previsión Life and Fire Insurance Company, and the National Bag Company. He has also served on many committees and boards which have enabled him to play an important and influential role in the economic, administrative, and political life of the country.

In 1921 Señor Ríos married Doña Marta Ide Pereira. In this model Chilean home there are three sons. The eldest, Carlos, was born in 1922 in the Canal Zone, where his father was then representing Chile. Carlos chose a military career and at present is a second lieutenant in the Artillery, serving at the Linares Artillery School. Fernando Antonio, born in 1923, followed in his father's footsteps and is already, at eighteen years of age, in his second year at the University of Chile Law School. Juan Guillermo, who is 17, is studying humanities at the Instituto Nacional in Santiago.



Visit to Washington of the Mexican Secretary of Foreign Affairs

At the opening session of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro on January 15, 1942, the Secretary of Foreign Affairs of an American nation took the speaker's platform to address the assembled delegates. It was not a long speech that he made, but its echoes have not yet died out in the Americas and even beyond their bordering seas. He said, in part:

What would happen, what would the future of our Americas be, should war succeed in dividing and separating us from one another? . . . We should sink down into slavery. We should be carved into colonies under foreign masters utterly insensible to human suffering. All the conquests of social justice that have been awakening in the men of America a sense of dignity and well-being would be swept away like dry leaves before the mechanized technique of races who consider themselves superior. Totalitarian propaganda would cause our nations to clash with one another, staining them with blood, using them as instruments for carrying war and destruction to our own sister nations, and a heritage of hate would spring up among us. America would ere long become a replica of what Europe now is: nations torn by discord, racial ferocity, rivalry, thirst for revenge ever unsatisfied!

If this is the international picture, within our nations dissensions, easily inflamed by invisible war, would arouse conspiracies and civil conflict, because of the skilful machinations for the subjugation and slavery of America.

But it cannot be; I am sure that there is not one among the noble nations of the Americas that will face so tremendous a responsibility. We are sure of unity. We shall not hear in the halls of American brotherhood those sinister words recorded in the first book of the Bible: "Am I my brother's keeper?"

On the other hand, if we pool our potential resources with the technical ability, the capital, and the initiative that together we possess, what an invincible wealth of blessings we shall create! We shall be able to bequeathe to our children those splendid words that say that if any one of our countries is attacked by a nation outside this continent, all the nations—not one or two, but all America—will rise up in common defense, as though the outrage upon that one nation's sovereignty had been inflicted upon themselves! Proclaiming Pan Americanism, we shall attain the ideal of a powerful defense and of living together in fraternity! Finally, if by withstanding the vicissitudes of war we win the right to occupy seats at the peace table, we shall uphold for America a platform of national and international justice, for only from such a platform will come a permanent and enduring peace! . . .

We must, on this Continent, build up a world that will be fairer to all, we must here work out a plan that will mean justice to all. Injustice still existent in vast areas of these Americas gnaws the very heart of the laboring masses. If we can succeed in organizing not only an economic system but also in creating an American moral entity, we shall thus be able to show by means of our deliberations that what interests us is not only the building of shipyards and the construction of airplanes, of such enormous value in war, but also that there is something higher that we are anxious to build—freedom for man in the Americas!

We have need of such things as cadmium, molybdenum, rubber, and other strategic materials for war, but there is one other product that we must not overlook: free man in America, on whose brow shall shine the dignity of his manhood; man the consumer, the soldier, the custodian of liberty!

The man who thus spoke, as everyone who followed the proceedings of the Rio meeting will recognize, was Ezequiel

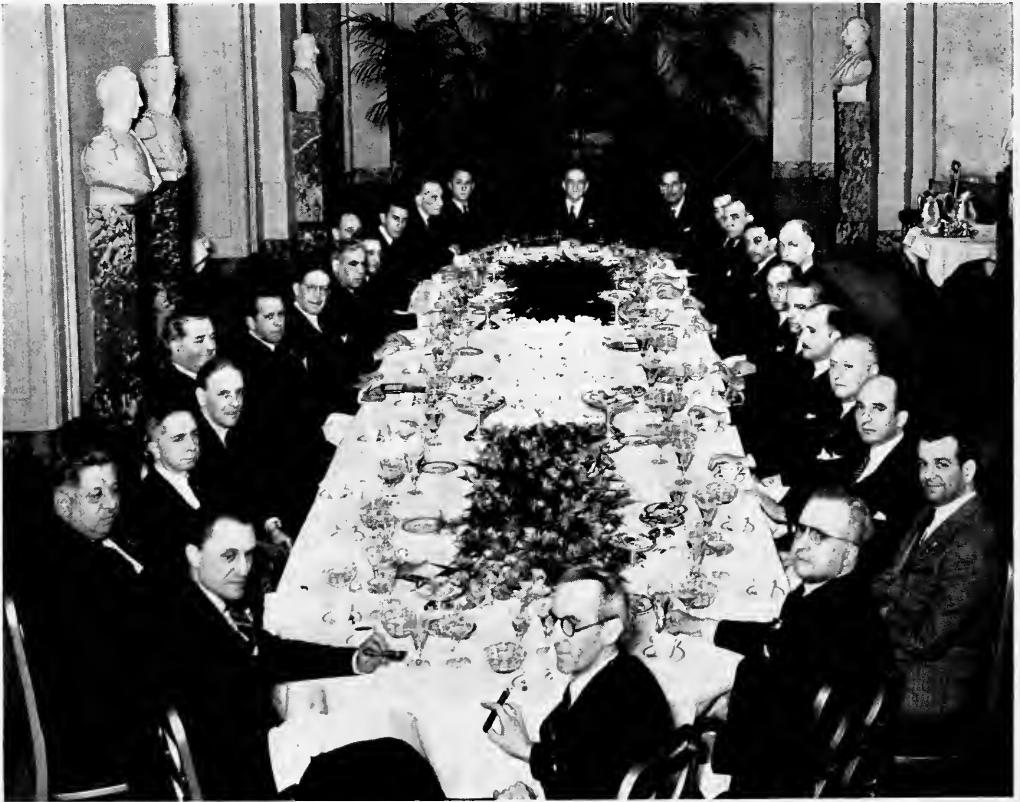
Padilla, Secretary of Foreign Affairs of Mexico, and the wave of acclaim with which members of the conference met his inspired and inspiring words swept by radio and the press throughout the entire Western Hemisphere. Twice more before the close of the conference, Dr. Padilla addressed the delegates, once extemporaneously, and both times his message was received with equal enthusiasm and accord.

It was particularly pleasing to members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union to have an opportunity on April 6, 1942, to honor the brilliant Mexican statesman at a special meeting of the Board at the Pan American Union in

Washington. In the absence of the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States and Chairman of the Governing Board, the Acting Chairman, Dr. Diógenes Escalante, Ambassador of Venezuela, welcomed the Mexican Secretary in the following words:

MR. SECRETARY:

The diplomatic representatives of the American Republics, sisters of Mexico, who are assembled here, offer you the most cordial welcome, Your Excellency, and at the same time desire to express the hope that the mission which has brought you to Washington may redound to the greatest benefit for your great country. This will also, indirectly, be to the advantage of the other countries of the Continent.



LUNCHEON IN HONOR OF THE SECRETARY OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF MEXICO

Dr. Ezequiel Padilla, the distinguished guest, is seated sixth from the left.

I say this because if geography, history, and political institutions are common bonds that have brought the American Republics closer together, one to the other, the fate which they confront today is also common, menaced as they are by dangers of gigantic proportions, dangers which establish the alternative of life or death for the liberty, present and future, of all of them. Similarly, the well-being, the strength and the progress of each one of our Republics is a concern which cannot but interest the others and produce in them sincere rejoicing. And it is in this interdependence, that, in the hour of danger as well as in that of prosperity, the essence of continental solidarity is found.

You have always been the brilliant champion of this noble cause, Your Excellency, as much in your private life as a citizen as in your public life. Fresh indeed are the laurels which you garnered recently at the Conference in Rio de Janeiro, where your words, in defense of democracy, resounded on many occasions setting a course for the destinies of our America in the present unsettled conditions.

It could not be otherwise, for besides your brilliant accomplishments, you represented at that conference the heroic nation of Mexico and its illustrious Government, zealous guardians of democratic institutions in our Continent and enthusiastic supporters of every Pan American cause.

Your visit to Washington has special importance at this time. It has been the task of your illustrious President, General Ávila Camacho, in collaboration with President Roosevelt, successfully to accomplish the long process of rapprochement and reciprocal understanding between the two nations. At no time in history have the relations between Mexico and the United States been more cordial. Less than a week ago this was stated publicly by the Acting Secretary of State, the Honorable Sumner Welles. This is pleasing in the highest degree to the members of the Governing Board and to the Director General; and it is in this double character as authorized spokesmen of your Government to the Government of the United States, and as a great Americanist that we greet your presence among us and wish you unlimited success in your important mission.

Dr. Padilla acknowledged the address of welcome in these phrases:

The welcome extended to me as Secretary of Foreign Affairs of Mexico is received with deepest

appreciation, as an expression of the solidarity with which we are bound together.

Although the union of all the nations of America has been taking shape as a growing reality, this is the first time that we have to fight a common battle for a common cause. The blood shed by the soldiers of this continent stains the united flags of America in a war in which the survival of the sovereignty of the American countries is at stake.

Our statesmen have been forging the ideological bases for the unity of America; in congresses and conferences they have given expression to the hope and purpose of dedicating this continent to human liberty. But now, at this moment when death and destruction are devastating the armies and navies of people who are our brothers, noble words must be accompanied by the constructive action of cooperation and defense and the resolve to fight to the very end for the fate of our united countries.

All our nations are conscious of their role in this great tragedy, and the sorrow of reverses and the hope of victory touch us with the power of events affecting the very roots of our destinies.

This baptism of sacrifice, which we shall feel even more deeply as the gigantic red wave of history sweeps onward, will consecrate forever the great American continental fatherland.

When after the alternating fortunes and the dark uncertainty that the future holds in store for us the hour of triumph arrives for the democracies, humanity will find itself on a stage set with misery, above the widespread ruins of civilization and of the spirit. That will be the hour for the achievement of America's great mission: To exert all its strength to deliver a suffering world from the physical and moral starvation that will prevail. If America, which is the only continent capable of such an achievement, cannot, with active and organized foresight that should begin today, turn aside the overwhelming tide of grief and despair, then peace will be a catastrophe even more evil and destructive than the war itself. No union of free nations has ever before had a more tremendous responsibility or a greater Christian mission.

I am deeply grateful to the Ambassador of Venezuela for calling to mind two illustrious Presidents, Roosevelt and Ávila Camacho. For the fate of this continent they represent an indomitable will and an exalted ideal of American fraternity.

With profound satisfaction I may confirm the declaration of the Honorable Sumner Welles to the effect that at no other period in history have the relations between Mexico and the United

States been more cordial. During my sojourn in this country I have had eloquent and unforgettable proof, that at times has moved me deeply, of this new era of firm and honorable friendship which is now beginning and which I am sure will be permanent. This precious fact is all the more uplifting when we consider that the twenty-one American Republics are coming closer to each other every day in heart and in mind, and that in this hour of peril their mutual determination and loyalty are a pledge of honor and a symbol of immeasurable spiritual value for the future definite federation of the souls and the peoples of the continent of liberty.

At the close of the special meeting of the Board, the Foreign Secretary was entertained at luncheon in the Hall of the Heroes of the Pan American Union.

Dr. Padilla's official mission in Washington had far-reaching and practical results. On April 2, 1942, Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, Ambassador of Mexico, and the Honorable Sumner Welles, Acting Secretary of State, exchanged ratifications of the Claims Convention signed on November 19, 1941,¹ and Dr. Padilla delivered to the Acting Secretary of State the Mexican Government's check for \$3,000,000 (U. S. currency) representing the payment due to the United States upon the exchange of ratifications. Under the terms of the Convention, Mexico agreed to pay the United States \$40,000,000 in settlement of certain property claims of United States citizens against the Government of Mexico. Payments of \$3,000,000 made prior to the signing of the Convention were credited against the \$40,000,000, and those payments, together with the \$3,000,000 delivered by Dr. Padilla, left a balance of \$34,000,000 to be paid by Mexico. Under the provisions of the Convention, this balance is to be liquidated over a period of years by annual payments of not less than \$2,500,000 beginning one year after the date of signature of the Convention.

¹ See BULLETIN, *January 1942*, pp. 47-50.

On the eve of Dr. Padilla's departure from Washington, a joint statement was issued by him and Mr. Welles in reference to a six-point program of economic cooperation between the United States and Mexico, the primary purpose of which is to expedite the American war effort. The text of the statement follows:

It has been not only a pleasure for us to renew our friendship formed at the meeting of Foreign Ministers at Rio de Janeiro but also a very real opportunity for exchanging views and reaching agreements regarding matters of the first magnitude to the two countries.

In the short space of a few days we have agreed on a number of arrangements that not only will develop the economic life of Mexico and the United States but will greatly speed the war effort of the United States.

1. *Trade agreement*

Last fall our two Governments agreed to study the possibilities of negotiating a trade agreement to expand commerce between the two countries. The preliminary studies having indicated that a satisfactory basis for a trade agreement exists, our two Governments made formal announcement on April 4 of their intention to negotiate a trade agreement. Negotiations will begin immediately after the completion of the public hearings required by United States procedure, which will be held beginning May 18.

2. *Industrial enterprises*

Continuing the program of cooperation in the development of industries in Mexico which was undertaken last fall, we have agreed that our two Governments shall collaborate in the establishment in Mexico of a series of basic industries to meet Mexican consumption needs and to supply goods required by the war effort of the United States. These industries will be established in Mexico through cooperation between private investors and the Mexican Government, and the Export-Import Bank will give careful consideration to the possibility of providing through the Nacional Financiera, S. A., credits for the acquisition in individual cases in the United States of materials and equipment that cannot be provided in Mexico. The obligations thus acquired by the Export-Import Bank will bear the guarantee of the Mexican Government.

Several important specific projects are under consideration, including a steel and tin plate rolling mill. In the granting of priority rating for the machinery, equipment or other material produced in the United States the paramount criterion will be the degree to which each specific project contributes to the war effort of the United States and the security of the hemisphere.

3. *Priorities and allocations*

We have had mutually beneficial conversations regarding the organization and procedure for handling priorities and allocations matters and arrangements have been concluded for the Mexican Under Secretary of Finance, Licenciado Ramón Beteta, to establish a special office and organization in Washington for the purpose of insuring the closest collaboration with the appropriate authorities of the United States. The allocation for the second quarter of 1942 by the Government of the United States of specific quantities of 45 major export articles, which was announced on April 4, provides a definite working basis for export commerce between the United States and Mexico based on careful examination of Mexico's needs in relation to the war production effort of the United States.

4. *Mexican railways*

We have agreed that an immediate survey of the needs of the Mexican railway transportation system is highly desirable in order to determine

the materials that are required to enable this system to function properly in the support of Mexico's economy in order to permit it to transport to the United States the strategic war materials being produced in ever-increasing quantities in Mexico. A United States expert has been sent to Mexico to make this study jointly with an expert appointed by the Mexican Government. They have been requested to present their report within thirty days. In anticipation of the report of these experts, the War Production Board is taking into consideration Mexico's needs of rolling stock in formulating the United States manufacturing program of such matériel for the coming year.

5. *Shipyards*

In view of the urgent need for cargo vessels and of the existence of certain shipbuilding facilities in Mexico, we have agreed that experts from our two Governments should immediately determine what construction of small cargo vessels in Mexico is feasible. On the basis of this study the United States Government will endeavor, taking into account the demand in the United States for shipbuilding, to make available to Mexico the matériel and tools required.

6. *High octane gasoline plant*

In view of the desirability of establishing a high octane gasoline plant in Mexico, we have agreed that a plant should be constructed as soon as the necessary equipment can be spared.

Pan American Day in Washington

"APRIL FOURTEENTH" are words that in the minds of citizens of the Americas have become synonymous in recent years with "Pan American Day," and that phrase in turn automatically means the annual commemoration of the continental community of interest and democratic way of life that unites the twenty-one American Republics.

This year is the twelfth in which the day has been officially observed in the Americas. It found the entire Hemi-

sphere, throughout its length and breadth from northernmost to southernmost outposts and from Atlantic to Pacific shores, deeply and fully absorbed in its united war effort. The observance of Pan American Day, therefore, was perhaps a little less formal than in happier, more leisurely years, but there was certainly no lack of enthusiasm, popular interest, and keen awareness of the day's significance.

In Washington President Roosevelt, who announced the Good Neighbor

Policy in his first inaugural address in March 1933 and reiterated its principles in his Pan American Day address on April 14 of that same year, initiated the 1942 celebration at noon at the White House when he received the Ambassadors and Ministers of the twenty Latin American Republics, members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. Explaining that the war left him no spare time for the preparation of a formal address, the President spoke to the assembled diplomats without detailed notes, saying in part:

I think it is a fine thing that again we are celebrating Pan American Day. I hope that we are celebrating it in every republic, because I think it has more significance this year than at any previous time in the history of the hemisphere. . . .

I am looking for a word—as I said to the newspaper men a little while ago—I want a name for the war. I haven't had any very good suggestions. Most of them are too long. My own thought is that perhaps there is one word that we could use for this war, the word "survival."

The Survival War. That is what it comes pretty close to being: the survival of our civilization, the survival of democracy, the survival of the hemisphere—the newest hemisphere of all of them—which has developed in its own ways. On the surface these ways may be a bit different, but down at the bottom there is the same kind of civilization that has come from a love of liberty and the willingness to pioneer. So I think that survival is what our problem is, survival of what we have all lived for for a great many generations. I think in all of the republics we have, relatively speaking, quite an ancient civilization—reckoned since we have had independence, and even for a good many years before that. That is why I hope that continental hemispheric solidarity and unanimity are going to continue. At the last Pan American conference of the hemisphere down at Rio—while some people felt it had not gone so far as it would like to go—we did manage to retain the objective of unanimity.

There may be other problems after the war that we will have to work out among ourselves, sitting around the table, but at the present time we have substantial unanimity. That is a great thorn in the flesh of Herr Hitler. He felt that the success

of the Rio conference was a very serious blow to the Axis efforts to dominate the world. . . .

So I hope we will continue to have the unanimity of the past. And when it comes to cleaning up the mess at the end of this war, after the Axis is defeated, we will have again a hemispheric council around here to see what we are going to do all over the world, because we will have a very great voice in preventing in the future an attack on our American civilization. . . .

We are going places. We will get somewhere. And we are going to have a couple of years, perhaps three years, before we can make sure that our type of civilization is going to survive. I am perfectly confident of it myself. We have all got to sacrifice. But we are going to come out the winner in the long run.

It is good to see you all, and I hope that next year we will be in an even better state than we are in 1942. Good luck to you.

In addition to the presidential reception of the Governing Board members, a feature of the official commemoration of the day was the concert of music of the Americas given in the evening at the Pan American Union. Concerts as the closing event of Washington Pan American Day celebrations have long been annual occurrences, but definitely an innovation was the total blackout that took place during this year's concert. Anticipating the scheduled test of that wartime necessity, announced for some time between 9:00 and 11:00 p. m., the audience assembled early and in the intervals between numbers on the program heard the air-raid sirens sounding only faintly through the heavy curtains of the great Hall of the Americas.

The concert was given by the United States Marine Band Orchestra conducted by Captain William F. Santelmann, with three famous Brazilians—Elsie Houston, soprano; Francisco Mignone, composer; and Bernardo Segall, pianist—as guest artists. The presence of Senhor Mignone, several of whose fine works were presented on the program, gave added interest to



THREE BRAZILIAN MUSICIANS

Left to right: Francisco Mignone, composer; Elsie Houston, singer; and Bernardo Segall, pianist.

the occasion. He himself played the piano accompaniment for Miss Houston as she sang four of his compositions. Miss Houston's warm and beautifully modulated voice captured the mood of all her songs in her usual pleasing manner; the many difficult intervals, which contributed

to their exotic quality, were taken with the marvelous ease to which Miss Houston's admirers are accustomed. Senhor Segall proved himself an artist of exceptional and brilliant talent in his performance of the Mignone composition, *Fantasia Brasileira No. 1*. The program was as follows:

Liturgia Negra
Chango
Iniciación

Pedro Sanjuan (Cuba)

Llanuras

Luis Cluzeau Mortet (Uruguay)

UNITED STATES MARINE BAND ORCHESTRA

Seven Latin American Folk Songs

1. *Paso Nánigi* (Cuba) arranged by Moisés Simons
2. *Tu Passaste por Este Jardim* (Brazil) arranged by H. Villa-Lobos
3. *Kurikinga* (Ecuador) arranged by M. Béclard-d'Harcourt
4. *De Blanca Tierra* (Bolivia) arranged by M. Béclard-d'Harcourt
5. *Muchacha Bonita* (Peru) arranged by M. Béclard-d'Harcourt
6. *Las Margaritas* (Argentina) arranged by D. Pelle
7. *Dansa de Caboclo* (Brazil) arranged by Hekel Tavares

ELSIE HOUSTON

VINCENT DE SOLA at the piano

Fantasia Brasileira No. 1

Francisco Mignone (Brazil)

BERNARDO SEGALL

and UNITED STATES MARINE BAND ORCHESTRA

Canção do Carreiro

Heitor Villa-Lobos (Brazil)

ELSIE HOUSTON

VINCENT DE SOLA at the piano

Four Songs

Francisco Mignone (Brazil)

1. *Assombração*
2. *Quadrilla*
3. *Desafio*
4. *Quadras*

ELSIE HOUSTON

The composer at the piano

Sinfonia India

Carlos Chávez (Mexico)

UNITED STATES MARINE BAND ORCHESTRA

Star Spangled Banner

The *Liturgia Negra* of Pedro Sanjuan was performed through the courtesy of the composer and the publishers, Associated Music Publishers, Inc.

The *Sinfonia India* of Carlos Chávez was performed through the courtesy of the composer and the publishers, G. Schirmer, Inc.

San Francisco Acclaims Pan American Day

1942 Celebration by the San Francisco Chapter of the Pan American Society

AUBREY DRURY

Member, Pan American Day Committee

THE greatest Pan American Day celebration in the history of San Francisco, California, was held in the city by the Golden Gate on April 14, under the auspices of the San Francisco Chapter of the Pan American Society. This marked increase in interest and participation, reflected in many gratifying ways throughout the course of the observance, was all the more notable because the 1941 celebration likewise had been decidedly successful, and the observances of the two

preceding years during the beautiful international Exposition on Treasure Island were indeed colorful.

Surpassing all, the 1942 version of Pan American Day was characterized by spontaneous acclaim all over California, no less than by the well-ordered program of events centering in the official observance at the San Francisco City Hall. These were opened in midmorning by a military review, brilliant though brief, in which the United States Navy and Marine



Courtesy of Pan American Society

PAN AMERICAN DAY CEREMONIES, SAN FRANCISCO

Charles Kendrick, President of the Pan American Society of San Francisco, addressed an audience gathered in the handsome rotunda of the City Hall.

Corps participated. On the reviewing stand were the representatives of the twenty Latin American republics, and representatives of the United States Army, Navy and Marine Corps.

Immediately following the review, ceremonies were held in the rotunda of the City Hall—a spectacular setting which has been termed the most impressive interior in all California. For this occasion it was specially decorated, with a display of the flags and colors of the United States and our sister republics, and the Pan American flag. The proceedings, which were broadcast by radio,

were introduced by selections rendered by a Guatemalan marimba band.

Addressess were given by Charles Kendrick, President of the Pan American Society, San Francisco Chapter; Hon. J. J. Martínez Lacayo, Consul General of Nicaragua, on behalf of the Latin American Consuls; and Dr. J. C. Geiger, representing Mayor Angelo J. Rossi of San Francisco.

Presiding at the ceremonies was R. J. Gutiérrez, Chairman of the Pan American Day Committee. A high point in the program came when the Pan American medal was presented amid applause to



Courtesy of Pan American Society

A PAN AMERICAN DAY COMPETITION

William Fisher, Secretary of the Pan American Society, is explaining to two high school students the competition in which certificates were awarded to the schools that arranged outstanding programs.

Dr. Geiger, for meritorious services to the Society and to the advancement of Pan Americanism during the preceding year.

Delegations from the high schools of the city were in attendance at the ceremonies, and to these eager students the Pan American Society distributed booklets describing and illustrating in color the flags and coats-of-arms of the Latin American republics.

At noon the Pan American Society tendered a luncheon at the Bohemian Club in honor of the Latin American Consuls with Dr. Charles P. Mathe presiding. Members of the Society and their guests greeted enthusiastically speeches by Charles Kendrick, the chapter's head; Hon. J. M. Albor, Consul General of Honduras, on behalf of the

Latin American Consuls; and Dr. J. C. Geiger, on behalf of the Mayor. Besides the consular dignitaries, high ranking officers of the United States Army, Navy and Marine Corps and other notables were present. This brilliant affair was enlivened by music played by the Guatemalan marimba band.

Both the Governor of California and the Mayor of San Francisco, taking note of the Presidential proclamation, designated Pan American Day as a day to be specially observed with appropriate ceremonies.

On the afternoon of Pan American Day, an appropriate program in Spanish was broadcast to Latin America over a short-wave station. The role of radio was indeed prominent this year. During the week preceding the day of the celebration, speakers representative of the Society gave addresses over the air—14 broadcasts in all, with most of the radio stations participating—stressing the significance of the events of April 14th.

The Society was instrumental in arranging round-table discussions of Pan American affairs. Outstanding was a one-hour round-table program over a prominent radio station, on Sunday evening preceding the festal Day.

Arrangement was made for displays in many of the large stores in San Francisco, emphasizing the Pan American theme for the entire week. Included in these was one relating to Latin American books; another presented Peruvian artware; many featured travel posters and maps. In the municipal streetcars, in leading hotels and at numerous public places, posters were in evidence, with the massed colors—the flags of the Americas. Display materials supplied through the Pan American Union were attractive and effective.

The four principal newspapers published editorials pointing out the great impor-

tance of the observance of Pan American Day, and references were made to the intrepid explorers and pioneers—Cabrillo and Portolá and Serra—and to the background of Hispanic tradition cherished by California along with its Argonaut heritage. The press was supplied with daily news releases, describing various aspects of the preparation for the pageantry and the functions; and for the week preceding April 14 the newspapers usually ran several items each day. Photographs of the ceremonies in the City Hall were published. The amount of journalistic space devoted to the celebration was the more noteworthy because of pressure on news columns brought about by momentous world events.

The Pan American Society arranged to have Pan American Day observed in the schools of the city, and encouraged the holding of exercises in other parts of the State likewise. In order to stimulate additional interest, a handsome framed certificate in colors was offered to those San Francisco schools which would put on especially distinctive programs.

The Society was successful in arranging a Pan American musical program by the Municipal Band in Golden Gate Park on Sunday, April 12.

In addition to its direct activities, the Society cooperated with other organizations in the San Francisco area to further

public interest in Pan Americanism. One organization arranged talks at the various service clubs during the week.

As in previous years, the arrangements in 1942 owed much of their success to William Fisher, Secretary of the San Francisco Chapter, Pan American Society.

Members of the Pan American Day Committee were:

Charles Kendrick, Hon. Casimiro Álvarez, Dr. D. J. Aubertine, Prof. Alfred Coester, O. K. Cushing, Aubrey Drury, William Fisher, J. O. Gantner, Jr., Dr. J. C. Geiger, W. L. Guthrie, M. E. Harrison, Dr. Charles P. Mathe, W. L. Montgomery, Allen S. Rupley, Leo Valenzuela, R. J. Gutiérrez.

On Pan American Day all public buildings, all consulates of the American republics, and many other buildings displayed flags.

The celebration was hailed as having lasting significance, helping much to foster inter-American amity—and calculated also to sustain civic pride, in a time of stress. High-hearted, people of San Francisco feel on such occasions that they are "citizens of no mean city." And San Francisco, gallantly keeping its banners flying, is alert to world events as never before.

At the Western Gate, today as when Bret Harte wrote the memorable phrase, San Francisco is "Warder of two continents."

The Atlantic Charter

Address delivered by the Colombian Ambassador to the United States, Dr. Gabriel Turbay, at the plenary session of the Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics in Rio de Janeiro, January 24, 1942

I believe, Mr. President, that the decision this Assembly takes on the principles enunciated in the Atlantic Charter is momentous. I do not hope that because of my brief commentary on this declaration my distinguished colleagues who have already expressed themselves will modify their decisions. However, I do hope that they will at least change their opinions regarding the Charter itself.

The Atlantic Charter is a joint declaration of principles signed by the President of the United States and the Prime Minister of Great Britain, with the intention of giving America and the world a guarantee that this is not an imperialistic war of the old type; that the downfall of the totalitarian States will not be followed by a change in the political cycle from one type of imperialism to another; that when the countries that are united in the struggle against Fascist governments are victorious they will offer the nations now suffering under those dictatorships the guarantee and certainty that they will not be treated as conquered peoples.

The American nations cannot remain indifferent to the fact that President Roosevelt and Winston Churchill, the great British statesman, published their intentions concerning both peace and war to the entire world just at the time when the American nations are declaring their solidarity in the defense of America. It suffices to read one by one the principles contained in the historic Atlantic Charter.

The eight points stated therein are inspired by the noble Wilsonian theory

that out of war should arise a peace organized on a basis of humane generosity, which rejects the spirit of retaliation and vengeance, and which prevents persecution, about which democracies are now complaining, from reigning tomorrow when democracy is victorious.

With the permission of the Assembly I now wish to enumerate briefly the principles to which I have been referring.

In the first point the President of the United States and Mr. Churchill declare that their respective countries are not seeking territorial or any other kind of aggrandizement. That is to say, they condemn war for conquest and reject the principle that victory carries with it the privileges and rights of spoliation that in the past have destroyed all hopes of attaining a better future for the world.

The second point is based on the principle of free will in the formation of new nations and says that the great powers will not instigate territorial changes that do not accord with the freely expressed wishes of the peoples concerned. Since in America the door has already been closed on the formation of new nations, it is obvious that this point refers to the Central European countries and especially to the reappearance of nationalist aspirations among the Asiatic peoples. What objection can the American countries have to this Declaration, when only a century and a half ago they started a struggle for independence based on the right to self-government and on the right to banish from American shores the colonial idea so as to replace it

by that of an international community formed of autonomous and juridically equal States?

The third point states the right of all peoples to choose the form of government under which they will live and promises the restoration of sovereign rights and independence to those who have been forcibly deprived of such rights.

For the Latin American countries this solemn promise is an endorsement of a policy that has produced the best results in their relations with the United States and has opened a new era of continental solidarity known as the Good Neighbor Age. The interventionist policy that caused so many misgivings among American nations is thus banned forever from the lives of our peoples and its universal condemnation prevents any possibility of its being practised on other continents.

The fourth point promises "with due respect for their existing obligations to further the enjoyment by all States, great or small, victor or vanquished, of access, on equal terms, to the trade and to the raw materials of the world which are needed for their economic prosperity." That is, it guarantees all nations that the new economic order will not be like that of 1920, which brought the members of the League of Nations to ruin. It is going to be a world order that must be inspired by the same social principles through which each one of our nations strives to realize our dreams of progress and justice.

The fifth statement encourages fuller cooperation between all nations in the economic field with a view to securing, for all, improved labor standards, economic prosperity, and social security. Economic prosperity—that is the supreme desire of the Latin nations, which are still in a semi-colonial stage in the development of their wealth; which, as many of our statesmen have said, export their soil

to support their citizens, without having their sacrifices compensated as a fair economic organization would compensate them. Economic prosperity also guarantees social security, which is none other than the desire of man to be sure of a roof, of bread, and of respect for his dignity and for his conscience, to have a retirement pension in his old age, to be sure of not being dismissed from his work without legal guarantees to protect him and his home.

I have now reached the sixth point, the wording of which seems to disturb some of our colleagues. In it is expressed a wish for the total destruction of Nazi tyranny. One can, I realize, make reservations with respect to that sentence and these I respect; it is possible that there are people who are not pleased to have the totalitarian governments qualified by that name. But the time has come to ask: What happens to the democracies classed by the dictators as corrupt and decadent that are incapable of proudly asserting their faith in their own standards of living? If the dictators have for years been scoffing at democratic and liberal systems, may not we, the men of America, say our word and pass judgment on dictatorships under which are sentenced to death, for their religious or political beliefs, citizens to whom this Charter offers a guarantee of justice and self-respect such as has been made in no previous war?

What else can history call this flood of barbarism in the midst of which we are living and on which rides the modern conqueror who wanted to dominate and destroy first the States who opposed his imperialistic plans and later to annihilate the spiritual State, which inconveniences and annoys him because he knows that it is easy to subjugate men, but that it is difficult to subjugate their minds? Is this

not the meaning of the admonition of that Pontiff who warned Christianity that over the hills of the Eternal City a flag was flying with a cross that was not that of Christ? And what else did the great prelate who guides the Catholic Church say in his wonderful encyclical of the first of January except that religion cannot exist if liberty perishes? "They hope to see established a peace which will afford to all nations the means of dwelling in safety within their own boundaries and which will afford assurance that all the men in all the lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want." So says the Charter.

Here I wish to refer to an historic event of bitter memory, to which His Excellency the Argentine Minister of Foreign Affairs, my distinguished colleague at the League of Nations, can bear witness. When the League Assembly was making its last effort to the end that general security should insure peace by applying sanctions against the aggressor power that in 1935 was waging a war of conquest against an independent State, a member of the League, all the American nations, in spite of the fact that it was a question of conflict on another continent, approved those sanctions—the final vote of confidence in that ark of immutable principles known as the Covenant of the League. Only three European members of the League dared to break the unanimity. Among those who did not fulfill their obligations was the representative of a small country, almost unknown in America. He was the representative of Albania, which sided with the aggressor and refused to cooperate in the defense of a weak nation, unjustly attacked. Several years later, on October 28, 1938, the dictator who had been favored with the support of the representative of the small State invaded the territory of Albania,

overthrew its government and showed the world how Fascists repay the services of their small accomplices. Is this not an exemplary reminder to the nations desiring to live "in freedom from fear and want?"

The seventh point provides that the peace will allow all men to cross the seas without hindrance. The principle of freedom of the seas has always been the basis of Christian civilization, a guarantee and assurance of no monopoly, so that every State can hoist its flag on its ships whether they be great or small and without an international police to keep them from freely carrying on commerce with every country, as did the Roman and Phoenician galleys with old Spain and as the caravels sailed from old Spain towards the shores of America.

Finally, the eighth point considers juridical principles on which the future organization of nations should be based, and without which any peace would be precarious. It also says that collective security should not permit the crushing armaments race, which in recent years has wasted untold wealth by enslaving humanity in the building of a frightful war machine hitherto undreamed of by the genii of destruction. To think that those millions could have been invested in work for social development and improvement, for public health and protection of the needy, and that today we should have a smiling world, very different from this dark and catastrophic world which the great Cervantes foresaw in the *Discurso de las Armas y de las Letras* when he said:

Blessed be those happy ages that were strangers to the dreadful fury of those devilish instruments of artillery and whose inventor I hope is paying the penalty in hell for his diabolic invention which is the cause that often a cowardly base hand takes away the life of the bravest gentleman, . . . a chance bullet . . . coming nobody knows how or from whence, in a moment puts a period to the brave designs and the life of one that deserved to have survived many years.

Naturally I do not pretend that the Atlantic Charter should be the gospel of the New Era. On the contrary, I think that it is incomplete and that in some ways one can sense the spirit of the old order that is being overthrown. But there are in the Charter principles and doctrines constituting a groundwork for a vast plan of social and political organization which would make peace lasting, if it is true that the nations are not simply making a fruitless effort to deceive themselves, something which would mean reverting to the classic errors inevitably leading to anarchy and revolt.

Therefore I believe that it is a momentous matter for the American nations to be able to say to the great democratic leaders in this war: "We are with you in this fight so long as these principles prevail; so long as it is known that human sorrow is not going to be used for prolonging a régime of arbitrariness and of plutocratic exploitation in any part of this planet, but rather so that there will emerge from repentance for our sins a better world, a new juridical order founded on a basis of law and respect for the equality of nations; a world in which it is taken into account that the countries dragged into this horrible tragedy by their dictators are brothers of the American peoples, and that a hand must be extended asking them to join in creating an order of collective security and a just and lasting peace."

I beg that the minds and hearts of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs here assembled will not dismiss disdainfully the statement of these principles fundamental

to human dignity and the fate of America, but that on the other hand we shall say that the Atlantic Charter is President Roosevelt's victory in the name of American ideals over the old beliefs of European imperialism and that we recognize in it the cleansing spirit of great social and political forces, all seeking only one thing: peace without empire. I should like to ask for a postponement of a vote on the resolution, that its preamble be amended, and that it be said with pride that all these admirably expressed principles are American principles never before enunciated with greater clarity and frankness, and above all never supported by greater strength than that of the British Empire and the United States.

The Atlantic Charter is a guarantee, a surety for weak nations. The powerful nations have made a solemn promise, and we should not be marching with a happy heart on the side of the armies of liberty if we were not certain that our sacrifices and ideals would not be frustrated.

I ask that you postpone the debate on this declaration; that you accept the noble and truly American ideas that Chancellor Aranha has expressed here, because he, like President Roosevelt, is one of the great voices of America; and I also ask that to satisfy those who may have some objections with respect to this declaration we meet again for another hour of round table discussion and then say in some form or other that we do not repudiate lightly the statement of principles that are the pride, safety, and hope of the American nations.

At the session of January 26 the Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs unanimously approved Resolution XXXV, which expressed to the President of the United States the Meeting's satisfaction at the inclusion in the Atlantic Charter of principles constituting part of the juridical heritage of America.

Luis Fernando Guachalla

First Ambassador of Bolivia in Washington

DR. LUIS FERNANDO GUACHALLA, who is the first Ambassador of the Republic of Bolivia in the United States since the recent elevation of that country's diplomatic representation to embassy rank, presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on March 31, 1942. His remarks on that occasion were as follows:

EXCELLENCY:

Since our Governments have agreed upon the elevation to the rank of Embassy of our respective diplomatic missions, as a proof of the growing friendship and the renewed importance of the moral and material bonds which exist between Bolivia and the United States, I have the high honor to place in the hands of Your Excellency the autographed Letters which accredit me as Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of Bolivia near the illustrious Government of Your Excellency. In doing this, I cannot but feel deeply encouraged, considering that the confidence thus reposed in me implies that perhaps my five years as Plenipotentiary in Washington had some recognizable effect in arriving at a better reciprocal knowledge and understanding of our problems, needs and just aspirations. I take this opportunity to state, Excellency, that the labor of strengthening relations, which it was my duty to carry out, following closely the instructions of my Government, would not have been possible or effective had I not been able to count at all times on the frank assistance and sincere cooperation of the distinguished officials of your Government.

In the vast field of present and future relations between Bolivia and the United States there is one feature which by itself stands out transcendently, and today more than in any other epoch of the history of the two countries. Without stinting its energy, and in a loyal manner, Bolivia is supplying the United States with various vital strategic materials for its defense. It is sufficient to underline the fact that my country is, at the present moment, practically the only source from which tin may be obtained. In the realm of facts, that



feature of our relations has the significance of the great results of international solidarity, since beyond the economic value of such interchange there stands out the joint determination of our peoples to vanquish, each with the contribution that destiny has indicated for him, the totalitarian aggression which threatens to darken the world. Our respective Governments have given preferred attention to this problem and must continue to do so. It is necessary to intensify our efforts to increase the production of tin and of other strategic minerals and, for the purpose of avoiding all difficulties inherent in this type of exploitation—fortuitous and uncertain difficulties—it is necessary to have standards to preserve a constant

equitable relation between costs and prices. With respect to this same subject it is also useful to point out that Bolivia offers the United States interesting possibilities for supplying its requirements of rubber and quinine.

My Government is not forgetting, nevertheless, that permanent interests oblige it to diversify the Bolivian economy, and it is for this purpose that it has requested and obtained the financial and technical assistance of your Government. My Government does not doubt, consequently, that this close cooperation for a long period will give desirable results throughout the years, making Bolivia a prosperous country. This should be agreeable to the United States, since it will find in Bolivia a better and safer source, at present and in the future, of the strategic and industrial minerals which it requires in large quantities.

In these hours of profound disturbances and cruel uncertainties for doubters, my Government and my people cherish the conviction that the sacred cause of liberty and of human dignity to which you, Excellency, have devoted your entire life and of which you are now the most distinguished champion, will conquer. Bolivia has proclaimed in Rio de Janeiro its definitive adherence to this cause and it stands at the side of your country without vacillation and with the great faith of the nations that are fervently devoted to Law and Justice.

Permit me, Excellency, to terminate these brief words with the honorable duty of presenting on behalf of His Excellency, the President of Bolivia, in his name and in that of the Bolivian people, sincere wishes for the unfailing greatness and prosperity of your noble country and for the personal well-being of its illustrious President.

The President replied to the newly appointed Ambassador in the following words:

MR. AMBASSADOR:

It gives me great pleasure to receive the Letters with which His Excellency, the President of the Republic of Bolivia, has accredited you as Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary of Bolivia near the Government of the United States of America.

The act of Your Excellency's Government in raising the rank of its diplomatic representation in the United States is a very friendly recognition of the growing importance in the relations between our two countries, an importance which has prompted the Government of the United

States to take similar action. I am particularly pleased to greet as the first Bolivian Ambassador to the United States a friend who as the Minister of Bolivia in Washington has for more than five years sincerely interpreted the people of Bolivia and the United States to each other and who has so ably conducted the relations between our Governments.

As Your Excellency states in your remarks on this occasion, the relations between Bolivia and the United States have assumed an even greater importance because of the emergency needs of the nations engaged in the combat against the treacherous forces of aggression. You may be sure that the Government and people of the United States are fully appreciative of the contribution being made by Bolivia to the defense of the institutions of freedom and justice.

It will, of course, be the constant desire of the officials of the Government of the United States to work with you in every possible way to strengthen the spiritual and material bonds which unite our two countries. You have mentioned certain of the specific measures of cooperation which are at present being developed and which may in the future be developed between Bolivia and the United States. I have every confidence that the systematic developments in which our two countries are joined will redound substantially to our mutual benefit.

In expressing the heartfelt gratitude of the Government and people of the United States for the close collaboration of the Bolivian Government and people during the present crisis, I give Your Excellency my personal assurances that I shall endeavor to express this appreciation in my efforts to assist you in carrying out the functions of your high position.

Please thank your distinguished President, General Enrique Peñaranda, for the friendly greetings which he has sent on behalf of the Bolivian people and in his own name. I will appreciate your sending to His Excellency my own best wishes for the increasing welfare of Bolivia and for his own well-being.

Prior to his designation as Ambassador, Dr. Guachalla had represented his country as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary in Washington since October 1936. He will continue, as during his years as Minister, to be the Bolivian representative on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

Celso R. Velázquez

First Ambassador of Paraguay in Washington

THE Government of Paraguay recently appointed Dr. Celso R. Velázquez as its first Ambassador to the United States since the elevation of its diplomatic representation to embassy rank. Dr. Velázquez, who prior to his appointment as Ambassador was rector of the National University at Asunción and professor of civil law in the Schools of Law and Social Sciences and of Economic Sciences, was born in Asunción on July 29, 1897, the son of Don Antonio Velázquez and Doña Claudia Ojeda de Velázquez. He was graduated with honors from the National University, receiving the degree of Doctor of Law and Social Sciences, and since that time has had a successful career both on the bench and as a teacher. The various legal posts which he has filled from time to time include: Examining judge in the Civil Court, trial judge in the Commercial Court, member of the Civil Court of Appeals, and member of the Superior Military Court. In the other of his two principal fields of activity, he has been professor of Paraguayan and American history in the National College, Asunción; professor of civil and commercial law, National School of Commerce; member of the Governing Board of the Schools of Law and of Economic Sciences; director of the School of Political and Economic Sciences; and dean of the School of Law and Social Sciences. At one time he served as Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, and he was also chairman of the International Commission on American Culture.

The new Ambassador presented his letters of credence to President Roosevelt on



March 31, 1942, and in the course of his remarks on that occasion said:

My Government, by a spontaneous act, and wishing to give one more proof of the interest and great sympathy which mutually inspire the United States and Paraguay, has raised the rank of its diplomatic representation, granting me the honor of being its first Ambassador near the Government of Your Excellency and its spokesman in the difficult period of history through which humanity is passing.

The sentiments that animate the Government are those of the Paraguayan people.

The high mission that has been entrusted to me near Your Excellency constitutes for me a cause for profound and singular satisfaction, because the strengthening of the spirit of collaboration and of the bonds that unite our countries—manifested once more by the resolutions to which my Government has subscribed in the circumstances of the

present war—will be for me a pleasing and honorable endeavor which I shall carry out most willingly and enthusiastically.

Undoubtedly, however, my personal efforts and good will will be insufficient for the attainment of such objectives without the valuable aid and collaboration of Your Excellency and of Your Government, for which I confidently hope.

In reply to the Ambassador, President Roosevelt spoke in part as follows:

It is an especial pleasure for me to greet you as the first Paraguayan Ambassador to the United States. The raising of our respective diplomatic missions in Asunción and Washington to the grade of Embassy reflects the growth in the cooperative relations between our two countries. I am particularly appreciative of the friendly recognition of this increased importance in our relations which is implicit in the act of Your Excellency's Government in raising the rank of its diplomatic representation in the United States.

The friendly good will which governs the relations between Paraguay and the United States is

the result of the firm determination on the part of the people of Paraguay and the United States to support the principles of mutual respect and equitable dealing. The unequivocal position of the Republic of Paraguay in the common endeavor of the American republics to defend themselves against the treacherous forces which today threaten the free institutions of the Americas has been a high testimony to the devotion of Your Excellency's Government to the cause of justice and democracy.

Your Excellency may be sure that it will be a source of personal pleasure to me to collaborate with you in carrying out the functions of your high position. I am, moreover, confident that it will be the constant desire of the officials of the Government of the United States to assist you in every possible way in strengthening the bonds between the Governments and peoples of Paraguay and the United States.

Dr. Velázquez will represent the Republic of Paraguay on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.



Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture

WHEN the First Inter-American Conference of Agriculture met at Washington in September 1930, a resolution was approved recommending that the Second Conference be held in Mexico City. In accordance with that resolution, the Government of Mexico extended invitations to the Governments of the American Republics to send delegates to the Second Conference to be held in the capital of Mexico July 6 to 16, 1942.

The date of the Conference was originally set for October of this year, but because of the urgency of the many problems of agricultural production created by the war, it was felt that an earlier meeting was advisable, for the purpose of considering those problems as soon as possible and laying plans to cope

with questions expected to arise in the post-war period.

At the request of the Government of Mexico, the Director General of the Pan American Union sent to the diplomatic representatives of the American Republics in Washington the Regulations and Program drafted by the Organizing Committee of the Conference, asking that the documents be transmitted to the respective Governments and that suggested changes or additions be sent to the Pan American Union for incorporation in the final program. The following program, which includes all the recommendations received from the American Governments, was approved by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union at its session on April 6, 1942:

PROGRAM OF THE SECOND INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE OF AGRICULTURE

THEME: The Impact of the Emergency Situation upon the Present and Future Agricultural Economy of the Western Hemisphere

I. FULFILLMENT OF RESOLUTIONS:

1. Reports of the delegations on the resolutions of the First Inter-American Conference of Agriculture.

II. AGROLOGY:

1. Soil classification.
2. Agrology, agrologic maps and plans.
3. Soil chemistry.
4. Soil bacteriology.
5. Soil conservation and technology.

III. ENTOMOLOGY AND PHYTOPATHOLOGY:

1. Entomological problems:
 - (a) Control of agricultural pests.
 - (b) Biological control of insects by the use of predators.
 - (c) Facilities for inter-American cooperation in entomology to include cooperative exchange of beneficial insects.

(d) Relation of insects to human health.

(e) Relation of insects to the development of agriculture in Tropical America.

(f) Grasshopper control in the American nations.

2. Phytopathological problems:

(a) Diseases caused by fungi.

(b) Diseases caused by bacteria.

(c) Diseases caused by filtrable viruses.

(d) Aerobiology in the international spread of diseases and international cooperation in grain rust surveys.

IV. RESEARCH AND EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS:

1. Research:

(a) Creation of the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences.

- (b) Plan for creating a chain of Agricultural Experiment Stations in all the Pan American countries.

2. Education:

- (a) Creation of inter-American scholarships for the purpose of providing specialized training for professionals in the agricultural sciences.
- (b) Exchange of agricultural undergraduate and graduate students between the various entities of the Pan American countries.
- (c) Arrangements by which technical experts employed in government services may accept scholarships without losing their official positions.
- (d) Need for instruction in agricultural technology in the Pan American countries.
- (e) Advantages of a system allowing agricultural experts freedom to make inter-American scientific studies and to practice their professions in other countries of the Pan American Union.
- (f) Advisability of publishing an International Magazine of Agriculture and Animal Husbandry, in Spanish, dealing especially with research, experimental, and bibliographical studies.
- (g) Fairs, displays and traveling libraries instituted under the auspices of official organizations.

V. FORESTRY:

1. Development and utilization of forest resources in the Pan American countries.
2. Development of a forest policy in the Pan American countries:
 - (a) Conversion of agricultural land, inclined at an angle of more than 15 degrees, to forestland.
 - (b) Control of deforestation.
 - (c) Placing emergency employment in forestry and allied industries on a permanent basis.
 - (d) Inter-American cooperation in matters relating to forestry surveys and forest conservation.
 - (e) The establishment of a Forestry Section in the Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union (Resolution adopted at the Eighth American Scientific Congress).
 - (f) Organization and development of research in forest matters.
 - (g) Teaching and development of forestry.

3. National Forest Policy:

- (a) To place the exploitation of national, municipal, comunal, ejidal and privately owned forests under the control of the forest service.
- (b) Regulating the use of pasture lands.
- (c) Fire control.
- (d) Timber conservation.
- (e) Substitute for vegetable fuels.

VI. ANIMAL INDUSTRY AND WILDLIFE CONSERVATION:

1. Animal industry:

- (a) Economic utilization of the various breeds of livestock in the Pan American countries.
- (b) Feeding.
- (c) Legislation or regulations controlling the sale of forage crops and concentrates for cattle feeds in the Pan American countries.
- (d) Sanitary inspection of livestock and animal products.
- (e) Meeting the demand for animal products of the American nations through the organization of the animal industry in the Pan American countries.
- (f) Eradication of animal diseases.
- (g) Measures for increasing domestic and foreign livestock trade.
- (h) Problems of veterinary medicine in the countries of the Pan American Union.
- (i) Agrostological studies.

2. Dairy industry:

- (a) Improvement of dairy cattle.
- (b) Sanitary milk production.
- (c) Improvement in the methods of transporting and handling milk.
- (d) Measures to increase the consumption of milk and milk products.

3. Conservation of wildlife:

- (a) Relation between wild animal life and agriculture, forestry and animal industry.
- (b) Measures to protect wild animal life.

VII. CLIMATOLOGY:

1. The economic relationship of climate and agriculture.
2. The economic value of weather forecasting in crop production.

VIII. CHEMISTRY AND TECHNOLOGY:

1. Sugar, vegetable oils, starches, alcohols, fibers, medicinal, and condiment plants including insecticidal plants as *Nicotiana rustica*, *Nicotiana glauca*, *Nicotiana sylvestris*, *Derris*, *Lonchocarpus*, and *Tephrosia*.

2. Research laboratories.
3. Fruit and vegetable preservation.
4. Production and industrialization of tanning materials.
5. Utilization of agricultural wastes.
6. Nutrition.

IX. PRODUCTS OF PRESENT DAY IMPORTANCE:

1. Meats, grains, coffee, cotton, rubber, oil plants, fibers, fruits, vegetables, and insecticidal, aromatic, and medicinal plants.

X. STATISTICS, PRODUCTION, TRANSPORTATION, AND DISTRIBUTION:

1. Statistics:
 - (a) Endeavors to obtain agricultural statistics in the Pan American countries.
 - (b) Publication of inter-American agricultural statistics.
2. Production:
 - (a) Establishment of centers to coordinate and regulate production.
 - (b) Rural production costs.
 - (c) Farm accounting.
 - (d) Organization of typical rural developments.
3. Transportation and distribution:
 - (a) Organization of a center to promote, establish, and coordinate modern commercial services. (Storage, refrigeration, transportation, etc.)

XI. COMMERCE AND CREDIT:

1. Commerce:
 - (a) Inter-American commercial organization to meet trade demands of the countries of the Pan American Union.
 - (b) Tariff policies.
2. Credit:
 - (a) Agricultural credit.

- (b) Credit under the ejidal system.
- (c) Credit for animal husbandrymen.
- (d) Security against risks sustained in the agricultural and livestock industries.

XII. RURAL ORGANIZATION:

1. Organizations:
 - (a) Associations in the forestry, agricultural, and livestock industries.
 - (b) Cooperative societies in forestry, agricultural, and livestock industries.
 - (c) Other groups.
 - (d) Need and the most effective methods for developing and sustaining the co-operative movement in the Pan American countries.
2. Rural population:
 - (a) Living costs and conditions of the rural family.
 - (b) Nutrition, health, and sanitation.
 - (c) Measures for improving living standards of rural families.
 - (d) Rural rehabilitation and reconstruction work recommended.
 - (e) Rural housing.
 - (f) Rural health.
 - (g) Rural electrification.
 - (h) Problems relating to the country woman.
3. Rural education:
 - (a) Rural elementary and secondary schools giving instruction in subjects pertaining to the agricultural and livestock industries.

XIII. AGRICULTURAL ENGINEERING:

1. Rural construction.
2. Irrigation systems.
3. Drainage.
4. Agricultural machinery.

First Meeting of the Inter-American Defense Board

ON MARCH 30, 1942, the Inter-American Defense Board held its inaugural session in the Hall of the Americas of the Pan American Union in Washington. Thus was translated into action Resolution XXXIX adopted at the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro in January 1942, which recommended the "immediate meeting in Washington of a commission composed of military and naval technicians appointed by each of the Governments to study and to recommend to them the measures necessary for the defense of the Continent."

The first formal session of the Defense Board was attended by the Honorable Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of War; the Honorable Frank Knox, Secretary of the Navy; and General George C. Marshall, Chief of Staff of the United States Army. It was a solemn and impressive scene. The flags of the twenty-one American Republics waved from their standards along the plaza in front of the building, and armed guards of the United States Army and Marine Corps gave to the Union an unaccustomed military appearance. In the patio the United States Marine Band Orchestra played American and Latin American music while the invited guests were assembling. The members of the Board took their seats around a large table in the front of the Hall of the Americas. Included among the audience were diplomatic, military, air, and naval representatives of the American Republics, the United Nations, and other free countries.

In the absence of the Honorable Cordell Hull, Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, the Acting Chairman, Dr. Diógenes Escalante, Ambassador of Venezuela, welcomed the members of the Defense Board in these words:

YOUR EXCELLENCIES, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

In the unavoidable absence of the Chairman of the Governing Board the agreeable and grateful duty devolves upon me to extend to you the warmest possible welcome on behalf of the Pan American Union.

You have assembled in obedience to a resolution adopted by the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro in January last. The task confronting you means much to the present and to the future of the American republics for it represents a further step in that great movement which has for its purpose nothing less than the protection of the Western Hemisphere.

The events of the last two and a half years have served to demonstrate the solidarity of the nations of the Western Hemisphere. In September of 1939, immediately after the outbreak of the war in Europe, the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics met at Panama and created the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, for the purpose of considering ways and means to offset the economic consequences of the war in so far as they might affect the American Republics. That Committee was organized at the Pan American Union and has been in continuous session ever since. At the time of the Panama Meeting it was hoped that the American Republics might be able to remain free of the war, and significant agreements were adopted to preserve the neutrality of the American Republics. But as subsequent events were to show, this was not to be.

Again in July of 1940, when it appeared that existing European colonies and possessions in America might become the subject of barter of territory or change of sovereignty, the Ministers

of Foreign Affairs met for a second time, this time at Habana, and established the Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration. It was recognized that the status of regions in this Continent belonging to European powers is a matter of deep concern to the Governments of all the American Republics, and that the transfer of such possessions from one European country to another would constitute a serious threat to the security of the American Continent. It was therefore resolved that in the event of such a contingency, the American republics themselves would take over the administration of such colonies or possessions.

And now that the war has come to the Americas, the nations of this Continent have been prompt to take decisive measures for the defense of their institutions and territorial integrity. In this period of crisis the functions entrusted to your Board are of far-reaching importance. Measures of military defense must take precedence over all other considerations. And it should be obvious to all that this problem is not merely one of the defense of our individual sovereignties, but of the collective sovereignty of all our nations. For if the history of the last two and a half years has taught one lesson it is that every country of this continent is affected by a threat to any one of them. It is most appropriate, therefore, that the Inter-American Defense Board should have been established in order that it may consider collectively the problems involved in the defense of the Western Hemisphere.

We shall all follow your deliberations with the deepest interest, and in the name of my colleagues of the Governing Board I wish to assure you that every facility of the Pan American Union will at all times be at your disposal.

At the close of his remarks, Dr. Escalante presented the Secretary of War, the Hon. Henry L. Stimson, who greeted members of the Board as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN, YOUR EXCELLENCIES, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

I extend a most cordial welcome to the representatives appointed by the governments of the American Republics to the Inter-American Defense Board. The creation of this Board does not mark merely the beginning of joint hemisphere defense. It is a step in the fruition of that policy. Its authorization at the recent meeting of Foreign Ministers at Rio de Janeiro implements a mutual

decision of our countries already reached and it is intended to effect a greater coordination in the measures of defense undertaken by the Americas.

We are confronted by a total war now raging and every nation in the world is to some extent being drawn into its vortex. It is a war of irreconcilable ideas and not merely a war of men, ships, and weapons. The issue is whether what we have known as our Christian civilization shall survive; whether we shall continue with our long upward development of the rule of reason and kindness; or whether we shall be thrown back into the anarchy of a rule of force and hatred. The repercussions of this struggle are felt everywhere. It is as impossible for us to escape them as it would be for us to attempt to withdraw from this planet.

The Government of the United States is keenly aware of the disruptions which this mighty struggle has brought into the life of every nation, indeed of every individual, in this hemisphere. None of us is any longer in a position to enjoy the comforts and happiness to which we formerly were accustomed. Every nation of the Americas will be sorely pressed for urgently needed materials and supplies. In the face of such compelling circumstances we must all attempt to arrive at a mutual understanding in the spirit of patience and tolerance.

It has been the policy of the Government of the United States to extend to its sister nations in the Americas help in the shape of munitions and supplies to the extent which its own resources made possible. Under Lease-Lend agreements we have supplied arms to our neighbors in this hemisphere as rapidly as the exigencies of the war permitted. It is a global war. Critical points of combat which must imperatively be met are constantly arising in various portions of the world. Naturally under such circumstances it has not been possible to furnish material to all of our neighbors as rapidly as we should like. But as our production has accelerated and approaches its peak, we have correspondingly attempted to accelerate the tempo of our distribution of assistance. In the Inter-American Defense Board, which we are now establishing, we hope to have an instrument wherein common council and discussion, the needs and resources of each nation and the possibilities of mutual assistance can be fully understood, and a solution of our various problems be reached in a spirit of mutual amity and helpfulness.

In closing I can, on behalf of the Government of the United States, assure you that we shall never swerve from our purpose to carry this great

war to a successful and victorious conclusion, or relax our energies until the enemies of freedom have been decisively crushed.

The next speaker on the program was the Secretary of the Navy, the Hon. Frank Knox, who delivered the following address:

MR. CHAIRMAN, DELEGATES TO THE INTER-AMERICAN DEFENSE BOARD, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

On behalf of the United States Navy, it is my great pleasure to welcome the delegates from the American Republics to the opening session of the Inter-American Defense Board. We are pleased at the opportunity presented by your presence not only to discuss with you matters regarding military cooperation, but also to give you first-hand information regarding some of the measures we are taking to win this war.

Your presence is added proof of the practical evolution of the Monroe Doctrine. The unilateral interpretation formerly ascribed to it has gradually developed to our present multilateral understanding. The principles of continental solidarity, justly expressed in the far-seeing declarations of Bolívar and Monroe, are even more alive and important today than they were at the time they were first stated.

The Navy is proud of the part it has played over long years in helping to develop inter-American solidarity from its initial interpretation to its present effectiveness.

In the old days, before the advent of modern fast transportation, the visits of our merchant and war vessels in the ports of the American Republics were the principal ties that linked us together. The continuation of these good relations was shown in the last World War by the support given to our naval vessels when visiting in the various ports of the American Republics. We note with appreciation that all the American Republics have in this war either become our associates, or have made their ports available to our naval vessels, even though they are not at war themselves.

Since the last war our good relations have been further increased by means of Naval Missions operating in various American Republics. Altogether, approximately 200 officers and men of the American Navy with their families have at times been members of Naval Missions to the American Republics. The personal and official ties developed have not only helped in the

evolution of inter-American solidarity, but have been a most important factor in developing the Good Neighbor Policy to its present usefulness.

The purpose of the Inter-American Defense Board is to recommend measures for the defense of the continent. In doing this we must face the situation realistically. We should endeavor to make ourselves invulnerable in the military and economic sense. We should take into account our spiritual resources, as well as unite our technical, scientific, and creative ability in order to make our potential resources effective.

The hope of a permanent peace must be deferred for the present. We must prepare for a long war. Our nations must prepare to fight for their own freedom, for that is tied up in that of mankind in general. This requires collaboration in the real sense of the word. It demands loyal cooperation and sacrifice. We must be prepared to give reciprocal aid.

Acting in the spirit and provisions of the Declarations of Lima and Habana, representatives of this country have held staff conversations with all the American Republics, which have resulted in the establishment of a general foundation for further cooperative action.

The United States has given unequivocal assurance of support to all the American republics in case of attack by non-American powers. The United States has further assured the American Republics that it will assist them in acquiring armaments, in training personnel, and in providing technical advisers as may be desired and available, having in view the prior obligation to supply ourselves and our associates in war.

The increasing danger of the war coming to the Americas is shown by the gradual expansion of the theaters of action. In 1940 it was called the Battle of Britain; in 1941, the Battle of the North Atlantic. We must now prepare for an extension of the theater of action to the South Atlantic and to the entire Pacific.

Enemy vessels are operating off the coasts of the United States and certain of the other American Republics. These operations are evidently for the purpose of disrupting the sea communications between the Americas. The merchant shipping of all the American Republics is in danger.

It is evident that one of the most urgent measures to be solved is the control and protection of our shipping.

In general, military cooperation involves planning, employment of available resources to make the plans effective, and training of personnel.

It should be emphasized that each of the American Republics should develop its own naval resources to the extent of its ability in order to effect cooperation. The United States will, of course, provide as much of the naval material as is possible, under present circumstances, to supplement that on hand. As our production capacity increases, we hope eventually to provide additional naval material needed by the various American Republics.

The United States Navy expects to continue its policy of assisting in training personnel to operate the material furnished. The amount of training that can be offered depends on the facilities available.

Let me emphasize that we are only protecting our own destinies by upholding the doctrine of continental solidarity. This continent is in imminent peril from non-American aggression. We must cooperate in making effective the combined plans recommended by the Inter-American Defense Board. Again, I wish to assure you of my great pleasure in greeting the delegates from the other American Republics.

The Chief of Staff of the United States Army, General Marshall, next addressed the Board and assembled guests. His remarks, brief but forceful and full of determination, were as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN, YOUR EXCELLENCIES, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

Approximately a year and a half ago I had the honor and opportunity to welcome the Chiefs of Staff of Latin America here in Washington. That was a very important gathering, I thought—and I still think—but its greatest value lay in the associations and the contacts that were made at that time. This particular gathering, it appears to me, has a much greater significance because it is the first time that we have gathered together for the definite, announced, regularized purpose of making military plans for the defense of the Western Hemisphere. We are all involved in the hazards and the dangers of this war. Those matters have been covered in the remarks of the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy. But I think it is of vast importance that we recognize what the hazards are, what the dangers are and what the remedy for protection against them must be. History is already full of records of nations which, in their failures to move with sufficient rapidity in their mutual arrangements for defense, have more or less passed from the

stage. We must not have such confusion and such delays in the Western Hemisphere. We have an immense advantage of geographical position, and to a more limited extent than we used to have, of geographical isolation behind the two great oceans. However, this war, as you already know, comes to our very shores and can be brought in the most devastating manner still closer. So it is, as I say, of vast importance that we be supremely practical in our methods of mutual protection and in our vision as to what the requirements are. Speaking very frankly and along severely practical lines—possibly not quite appropriate to this occasion—I think we must try our level best to conduct our affairs very much as brothers usually do. They settle their differences among themselves or, at least if they don't settle them, they meet the outside world with a united front. There are going to be difficulties; there are going to be differences, but here in this Western Hemisphere we have to present a united front against the terrific dangers of this present conflict. We know—we have every evidence at the present time—that we shall be attacked with a view of dividing our purpose. Nearly every sentence spoken is subjected to minute scrutiny to see if it can not be used to our disadvantage by separating us or by turning us one against the other. Now, those are definite military hazards and I hope that this meeting, this first definite military planning defensive group, can offset the great hazards that are inevitable at such a time as this and with such an implacably ruthless enemy.

The Secretary of War has already referred to the matter of material. I might merely add that this matter concerns me very directly for it presents hourly problems to me personally in the position of Chief of Staff of the Army. We do our wisest, if I may put it that way, to meet the situation as it actually exists with its varying dangers. We must see that in the deployment of our resources, they go to the critical theater at the right time to save the situation and to lead to our final purpose. We are penurious with ourselves, our troops and our commanders here in this country. We never give them what they ask for because it has seemed to us of paramount importance to do in this conflict everything we can for the defense of the Western Hemisphere, which means to keep the war out of the Western Hemisphere. But our greater purpose—to which we must address ourselves steadfastly, determinedly in spite of all the continuing conflicting difficulties—is to gather all our forces for a major offensive at the earliest possible date.

Major General Arturo Espinosa Mujica, Chilean member of the Defense Board, was chosen to acknowledge the words of welcome on behalf of his colleagues. His remarks were as follows:

YOUR EXCELLENCIES, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN:

May I take this opportunity of expressing my gratitude to the delegates to the Inter-American Defense Board for the honor that they have bestowed on me by selecting me to reply in their name to the distinguished personages who have preceded me: His Excellency the Ambassador of Venezuela, Dr. Escalante, the Hon. Henry L. Stimson, Secretary of War, the Hon. Frank Knox, Secretary of the Navy, and General Marshall.

My selection which, I repeat, is a great honor to me, is due to the fact that among the delegates to this inter-American meeting, I hold the highest rank, that of a Major General of the Republic of Chile.

For my Government, for all the people of my country, and especially for its armed forces, the Army, the Navy, and the Air Services, it must undoubtedly be a source of satisfaction to know that their delegate has been selected to address this historic gathering at which military representatives of the Republics of both the North and South of this Hemisphere exchange greetings and develop closer ties as they search for the path and procedure that will enable them to safeguard the security and independence of their countries.

Certainly, I am expressing the sentiments of the other delegates as well as my own when I say that this meeting reflects once more the unity of sentiments in the hearts of all men on this continent.

We are gathered today under the roof of the Pan American Union, symbol of our brotherhood, where twenty-one flags form two wings of youth, representing the community of our efforts and objectives.

The Acting Chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, His Excellency Ambassador Escalante, has expressed, on behalf of this institution, in addition to his greetings, this spirit of fraternity that inspires us.

We have listened to the messages of two Cabinet officers of this great Republic who, with the proverbial generosity of Americans, have extended to us a warm welcome and offered us their hospitality. In this welcome we have felt the sincere and enthusiastic cordiality of the great American people, and in the words of General Marshall, Chief of Staff of their Army, we the representatives of the Latin American Army,

Navy and Aviation services have found the warmth of the professional goodfellowship and the dignified and cordial expression distinguishing the services to which we belong.

This is the customary attitude of the noble American people, an attitude symbolic of a youthful race of old stock which finds in us a corresponding spirit of loyalty and sincerity because we likewise are youthful countries of ancient lineage.

The execution of the Rio de Janeiro Resolution, which has been commenced by this meeting, will make it possible to study ways and means for coordinating the plans which, with due consideration to the geographical and other characteristics of each country, will contribute to the complete defense of the Hemisphere.

The community of our American sentiments, love of freedom, and peace within a democratic system, which is the basis of the civilization of the Americas, are factors which will assure the successful development of the labors that we are now beginning. This augurs well for our nations which under present world conditions desire above all that the standards on which they have founded their outward and inward life—standards of order, justice, respect for the dignity of the individual, and the moral and legal tenets under which the nations of this Continent have lived and progressed—shall find a protecting bulwark that will permit them to continue to guide their own destinies.

Love of liberty and peace is the core of the civilization of the Americas. We Americans from both the North and the South love liberty and peace almost as if it were a biological necessity.

We have faith and confidence that the spirit of cooperation which has been shown so many times by our peoples and Governments will inspire in each of our sessions the frankness and cordiality that we all feel prevails today at this first meeting.

Lieutenant General S. D. Embick, senior United States member of the Board, was then elected permanent chairman, an honor he accepted with the following words:

GENTLEMEN:

I appreciate deeply the honor you have conferred upon me.

His Excellency, the Ambassador of Venezuela, has informed you of the purpose for which we have been assembled. I am sure that you are all aware of the urgent need of accomplishing that purpose with the least possible delay.

To those who would question that need, I would suggest that the most distinctive characteristic of this war is not its world-wide scope. Instead, it is to be found in the complete dependence of the opposing forces upon the products of the age of power—the age of modern as distinguished from handicraft industry; an age that has come to maturity only within recent years and only now is finding its full application to military uses.

The scale of equipment of the forces of each of the major combatants requires for its support not only a vast mechanical industry but the command of resources in raw materials that are continental in variety and scope. We of this Hemisphere—the scale of whose military equipment is reflective of the earlier age—we can expect to cope successfully with such forces, to deny them dominion here, only if we have means of like magnitude. Here then is an impelling motive for our full collaboration, for joint preparations would appear to offer the only way to the attainment of that end.

It is suggested that each Delegation prepare and transmit to the Secretary-General the measures for the betterment of Hemisphere defense that it desires to have considered by the Board. A compilation of these will then be prepared as an Agenda for subsequent sessions. To afford time for such action, I would suggest that, unless there is objection, our next plenary session be held on April 6th.

After the close of its inaugural session, the Inter-American Defense Board, which will function for the duration of the war, took up permanent quarters in the Federal Reserve Building in Washington. The following is a list of its members:

ARGENTINA:

Captain Alberto D. Brunet
Colonel Antonio Parodi

BOLIVIA:

Colonel Oscar Moscoso

BRAZIL:

Brigadier General Amaro Soares Bittencourt
Colonel Armando de Souza e Mello
Ararigboia
Commander Edmundo Jordão Amorim do Valle

CHILE:

Major General Arturo Espinosa Mujica
Captain Carlos Cortés
Lieutenant Colonel Guillermo López Larraín

COLOMBIA:

Lieutenant Colonel Ernesto Buenaventura

COSTA RICA:

Captain Octavio Sacasa (also delegate from Nicaragua)

CUBA:

Lieutenant Colonel Felipe Munilla
Lieutenant Felipe Cadenas

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC:

Major Salvador Cobián

ECUADOR:

Colonel Agustín Albán Borja

EL SALVADOR:

Colonel Fidel Cristino Garay

GUATEMALA:

Colonel Félix Castellanos

HAITI:

Colonel Roche Laroche

HONDURAS:

Colonel José Augusto Padilla

MEXICO:

Colonel Cristóbal Guzmán Cárdenas

NICARAGUA:

Captain Octavio Sacasa (also delegate from Costa Rica)

PANAMA:

Colonel Bey Mario Arosemena

PARAGUAY:

Lieutenant Colonel Juan Rovira

PERU:

Rear Admiral Carlos Rotalde
Lieutenant Colonel Jorge Sarmiento

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA:

Lieutenant General S. D. Embick
Vice Admiral Alfred W. Johnson

URUGUAY:

Colonel Hugo Molins
Lieutenant Colonel Medardo Farías
Commander Mario Collazo Pittaluga
Commander Julio C. Poussin

VENEZUELA:

Colonel Juan Jones Parra

Summer Study Courses in Cuba, Mexico, and Costa Rica

OPPORTUNITIES for study in Latin America are being offered again this year to undergraduates, graduates, teachers, and research workers who want to perfect their Spanish, become better acquainted through actual experience with some of their Latin American neighbors, or gather first-hand research material. The International Institute of Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York City, is sponsoring the University of Habana's second summer school July 13 to August 23, 1942, and a social science study trip to Mexico during the period June 26–August 21, 1942.

The University of Habana summer school is designed mainly for foreigners with some knowledge of Spanish. There will be a wide variety of courses, some few in English but mainly in Spanish, including such subjects as literature, history, education, economics, Cuban art and archaeology, ornithology, ichthyology, and tropical medicine. Among the subjects that will perhaps appeal especially to students from the United States are the following: economic geography of Latin America, economic resources of Cuba, financial management of the Cuban sugar industry, history of Cuba, conquest and colonization in Hispanic America, history of the Hispanic American nations since their independence, the United States and Latin American independence, the Spanish Theater of the 16th and 17th centuries, the Spanish picaresque novel, the contemporary novel in Hispanic America, a survey of Latin American literature, political and social thought in Latin America, and American international relations.

Certificates will be issued to students who attend at least 80 per cent of the classes and who satisfactorily complete all the required work. Summer school work at the University of Habana has already been recognized by several colleges and universities in the United States and negotiations are under way to secure recognition by others, but it is suggested that students consult their deans or department heads in regard to evaluation of credits at their particular schools.

There will be field trips in connection with some of the courses, and afternoon lectures, concerts, plays, and social activities are planned so that students may become acquainted with Cubans. The experiences and impressions of a summer student at the University of Habana's 1941 session were enthusiastically recorded by Alfred L. Lupien in an article *Presenting Cuba, Our Good Neighbor*, published in the February 1942 issue of the BULLETIN. Interested candidates may secure full information and application blanks from the Institute of International Education or from Dr. Luis A. Baralt, Secretario, Escuela de Verano, Universidad de la Habana, Habana, Cuba.

The Institute of International Education itself is organizing a social science study trip to Mexico. Members of the group will work on individual research projects under the leadership of Professor Max Savelle, of the History Department, Stanford University, California. Through facilities made available by the leader of the group and the Institute, members will have many opportunities to interview

leading educators, industrialists, and public administrators in Mexico. In addition to these opportunities for original research, courses at the University of Mexico summer school will be open to group members. The following are suggested as being of particular interest to social scientists:

IN ENGLISH

- Agrarian Question in Mexico,
by Prof. Antonio Vargas McDonald
- Diplomatic Relations between Mexico and the
United States,
by Prof. Víctor Velásquez
- General Survey of Mexico,
by Prof. Ramón Beteta
- Spain in the New World,
by Prof. Edmundo O'Gorman
- Survey of Mexican History,
by Prof. Pablo Martínez del Río

IN SPANISH

- Commerce between Spanish America and the
United States
- Contemporary Economic Policies,
by Prof. José Gómez de Silva
- Contemporary History of Mexico,
by Prof. Miguel Alessio Robles
- Geographical Description of Mexico,
by Prof. José Luis Osorio Mondragón
- History of the Conquest of Mexico,
by Prof. Rafael García Granados
- History of Spanish American Culture,
by Prof. Xavier Sorondo

Full information and application blanks may be secured from the Institute of International Education at the address given above.

Still another opportunity for summer study in Mexico is made available by the Texas State College for Women, which is offering a summer course for undergraduate and graduate students at Saltillo from July 17 to August 21, 1942. The courses will include elementary and advanced Spanish grammar and literature, Mexican literature, Mexican civilization, and Mexican folklore. The faculty will be composed of teachers from both the United States and Mexico; credits received will be recorded at the Texas

State College for Women on the same basis as if the work were done at the College in Denton, and may therefore be applied toward an advanced degree. Saltillo, in the State of Coahuila, has an ideal climate and is one of the centers of culture of modern Mexico. Further information may be secured from Dr. Jerome Moore, Box 3747, Texas State College, Denton, Texas.

The National University of Mexico will hold its twenty-second annual summer session from June 29 to August 14, 1942. As has been the custom in previous years, many courses will be offered in English covering varied fields of interest: Sociology, education, Mexican art, Mexican folklore, the agrarian question, Mexican rural schools, business courses, a general survey of Mexico, and others. To supplement the staff of outstanding Mexican professors, a number of distinguished scholars and writers from the University of Madrid and other Spanish centers of learning have been invited to lecture in Spanish on a wide variety of subjects for the benefit of students who have a command of the language. Full information regarding the courses, fees, registration, and related matters may be secured from the Secretaría de la Escuela de Verano, San Cosme 71, Mexico, D. F., Mexico.

At the picturesque little colonial town of San Miguel de Allende, Guanajuato, Mexico, the Escuela Universitaria de Bellas Artes will hold its fifth summer session from June 15 to September 15, 1942. A magnificent old convent serves as the school center and workshop for this unique summer school. Students automatically become members of the Bellas Artes Club and are entitled to use the facilities of the Ranch, where an excellent swimming pool, tennis court, and riding horses are available. Students are housed at the new Hotels San Francisco and Reforma. The

curriculum includes figure painting, still life and drawing, landscape painting, sculpture, fresco painting, woodcarving, ceramics, weaving, architecture, Spanish, and English. Complete details may be obtained from Stirling Dickinson, 1500 Lake Shore Drive, Chicago, Illinois.

For students who wish to travel a bit farther south than Mexico, the Inter-American Summer University, San José, Costa Rica, will hold two four-week sessions, June 13-July 11 and July 23-August 20, with a two-week inter-session period to be occupied with lectures, excursions, and field trips. This summer study project, offered this year for the second time, has the approval and coop-

eration of the Costa Rican Government, and the courses, under the charge of outstanding Costa Rican teachers, are planned to meet the needs of students of Spanish from the United States who wish to become better acquainted with their Latin American neighbors and of Costa Rican students who desire to learn English and fraternize with their neighbors from the north. Courses given in Spanish are designed especially for students working toward an M. A. or Ph. D. in that language. Full information may be obtained from Miss Fletcher Ryan Wickham, Secretary, Inter-American Summer University, 225 South Windomere Avenue, Dallas, Texas.



The Americas and the War

To keep the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be

The publication of this compilation was begun in the April 1942 issue of the BULLETIN. When a reference stands by itself in parenthesis, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issue, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number (e. g., 2a).

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, "Boletín Oficial"; Brazil, "Diário Oficial"; Chile, "Diario Oficial"; Colombia, "Diario Oficial"; Costa Rica, "Gaceta Oficial"; Cuba, "Gaceta Oficial"; Dominican Republic, "Gaceta Oficial"; El Salvador, "Diario Oficial"; Ecuador, "El Registro"; Guatemala, "Diario de Centro América"; Haiti, "Le Moniteur"; Honduras, "La Gaceta"; Mexico, "Diario Oficial"; Nicaragua, "La Gaceta"; Panama, "Gaceta Oficial"; Paraguay, "Gaceta Oficial"; Peru, "El Peruano"; Uruguay, "Diario Oficial"; and Venezuela, "Gaceta Oficial."

compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

The list will be continued in subsequent issues of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART III

ARGENTINA

- 4j. January 31, 1942. Presidential Decree establishing an office for the vigilance and suppression of anti-Argentine activities. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, February 1, 1942.)
6. February 10, 1942. Presidential Decree, ordering the indefinite retention in active service of conscripts of the class of 1920. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, February 11, 1942.)
7. February 10, 1942. Presidential Decree calling to service the second lieutenants and non-commissioned officers of the classes of 1918 and 1919. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, February 11, 1942.)

BRAZIL

- 16a. March 7, 1942. Announcement by the Government that in reprisal for Japanese action in placing Brazilian diplomats in Japan incommunicado, the Japanese Ambassador and other functionaries of that country in Brazil would be

given like treatment. (*New York Times*, March 8, 1942.)

21. March 25, 1942. Police in Rio de Janeiro closed the German Society and appointed intervenors for the German School and German Benefit Society. (*New York Times*, March 26, 1942.)
22. April 1, 1942. Presidential Decree giving the Bank of Brazil control of the entire rubber trade and authorizing it to finance the manufacture of Brazilian rubber products. (*New York Times*, April 2, 1942.)

CHILE

4. February 13, 1942. The National Defense Council adopted various measures relating to national defense, including the immediate fortification of vital coastal points, supplementing those fortifications by air and antiaircraft protection, regrouping naval forces, and indefinitely extending the term of service of present army and

naval forces. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, February 14, 1942.)

COLOMBIA

7. (*Diario Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

9a. December 30, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2253, prescribing provisions in regard to the suspension or loss of civil or military pensions, retirement pay, and compensation. (*Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1942.)

9b. December 31, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2270, authorizing the Postal and Telegraph Department to allow occasional or regular rebroadcasts of programs of foreign radio stations. (*Diario Oficial*, January 12, 1942.)

9c. January 7, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 6, prohibiting the transmission by radio and the publication in newspapers of information regarding the movement of war or merchant vessels, national or foreign, and likewise the movements of commercial or military airplanes. (*Diario Oficial*, January 14, 1942.)

9d. January 16, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 57, authorizing a decrease in the gold reserve to 30 percent of the total of bank notes in circulation, during the present emergency. (*Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1942.)

9e. January 16, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 58, providing that exportation of platinum may be made only by or through the Bank of the Republic (*Banco de la República*). (*Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1942.)

10a. January 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 59, establishing standards for the control and administration of the property and funds in the country belonging to nationals of the Axis powers or countries occupied by those powers. (*Diario Oficial*, January 20, 1942.)

12a. January 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 146, establishing control of the sale of tires and tubes. (*Diario Oficial*, January 27, 1942.)

16. February 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 317, establishing additional regulations for the control of the sale of tires. (*Diario Oficial*, February 10, 1942.)

17. February 13, 1942. Presidential Decree creating the National Office for the Supervision of Imports and prescribing other measures pertaining to foreign trade. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, February 14, 1942.)

18. February 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 526, making certain provisions in regard to the funds of nationals of the Axis powers. (*Diario Oficial*, February 28, 1942.)

COSTA RICA

14a. December 26, 1941. Legislative Decree No. 34, authorizing the Executive Power to adopt measures necessary for the development and protection of the country's agricultural, industrial, and commercial activities, and establishing the Economic Defense Board. (*La Gaceta*, December 30, 1941.)

21. February 17, 1942. Organization of National Civilian Defense Committee in the Department of the Interior, for the purpose of coordinating activities relative to the protection and security of the civilian population. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, February 17, 1942.)

22. February 24, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 6, authorizing the Office of Coordination to act as Custodian of the property of enemy aliens and setting up regulations for the fulfillment of Presidential Decree No. 52 of December 26, 1941 (see Costa Rica 14, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*La Gaceta*, February 25, 1942.)

23. March 4, 1942. Legislative Resolution No. 4, suspending constitutional guarantees for a period of sixty days. (*La Gaceta*, March 5, 1942.)

24. March 12, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 37, approving a contract for promoting the cultivation, processing, and export of abacá, which is now considered a strategic material. (*La Gaceta*, March 13, 1942.)

CUBA

68a. February 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 360, regulating the price of cattle and meat, exports of the latter, and other aspects of the cattle industry, including the establishment of official supervising commissions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 13, 1942.)

70a. February 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 458, extending the time for payment of the sugar, income, and association membership taxes levied by Resolution-Law No. 15 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 63, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 26, 1942, p. 3254.)

74a. February 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 406, exempting machinery for rice sowing, cultivation, and preparation from customs duties. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 19, 1942, p. 2902.)

75a. February 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 442, providing for a ½-cent-stamp issue for the collection of the additional postage charge imposed by Resolution-Law No. 14 of February 6, 1942. (See Cuba 62, BULLETIN, May 1942.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 25, 1942, p. 3157.)

75b. February 20, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, placing under the export control rules established by Presidential Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1941 (see Cuba 26, BULLETIN, April 1942), all foods, except sugar and coffee, which are the product of national soil or industry. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 25, 1942, p. 3157.)

75c. February 22, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 452, extending the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 3278 of November 29, 1941 (which designated as the divulcation of a state secret the publication or radio broadcast of information on movements in Cuban waters of ships belonging to belligerent nations), to include all vessels, war or merchant, whatever their nationality or flag. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 25, 1942, p. 3227.)

75d. February 23, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, placing under the export control rules established by Presidential Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1941 (see Cuba 26, BULLETIN, April 1942), animal byproducts used in the manufacture of glue. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 27, 1942, p. 3328.)

76a. February 27, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, prescribing preferences for the rationing of motor vehicles included in the priorities established by Presidential Decree No. 125 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 46, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 7, 1942, p. 3959.)

80a. March 3, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, regulating the importation, distribution, and sale of tires and tubes in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 125 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 46, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1942, p. 4248.)

80b. March 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 692, fixing production, exportation, and local consumption quotas for all the nation's sugar mills, in accordance with the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 385 of February 16, 1942 (see Cuba 72, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 18, 1942, p. 4598.)

82. March 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 612, clarifying the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 403 of February 19, 1942 (see Cuba 75, BULLETIN, May 1942), in regard to acquisition by the Defense Supplies Corporation of the United States of the 1942 Cuban sugar crop. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1942, p. 4247.)

83. March 6, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, exempting from the export control rules established by Presidential Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1941 (see Cuba 26, BULLETIN, April 1942), shipments of fresh fruit and green

vegetables to United States markets during specified seasons. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 7, 1942, p. 3959.)

84. March 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 582, forbidding, in accordance with the authority given by Resolution-Law No. 6 (see Cuba 48, BULLETIN, April 1942), all foreign vessels, except war vessels belonging to allied or friendly nations, to establish any radio communication when within Cuban waters with any station not controlled by the Cuban Government, except in cases of S. O. S. calls. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 9, 1942, p. 3995.)

85. March 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 656, declaring blood transfusion service to be a national public utility and creating the Blood Transfusion Center in the General Calixto García Hospital. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 13, 1942, p. 4373.)

86. March 9, 1942. Resolution No. 14, Alien Property Custodian, exempting a specified person from the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 3343 of December 12, 1941 (see Cuba 6, BULLETIN, April 1942), and from other rules and regulations pertaining to enemy aliens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 13, 1942, p. 4379.)

87. March 10, 1942. Resolution, Ministry of Commerce, prescribing additional rules to be observed in handling requests for tires and tubes, in accordance with the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 125 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 46, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1942, p. 4281.)

88. March 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 725, requiring that special permission must be obtained for salvaging of old iron, parts of ships, sunken cargoes, etc., from Cuban waters. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 18, 1942, p. 4635.)

89. March 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 695, prescribing the regulations for putting into effect the Emergency Military Service Law (Resolution-Law No. 4 of January 5, 1942). (See Cuba 37, BULLETIN, April 1942.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 16, 1942, p. 4509.)

90. March 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 679, suspending the luxury tax imposed on perfumery by Resolution-Law No. 1 of December 31, 1941 (see Cuba 33, BULLETIN, April 1942), if the articles in question do not exceed 20 cents in value. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 14, 1942, p. 4438.)

91. March 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 727, broadening the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 403 of February 19, 1942 (see Cuba 75, BULLETIN, May 1942), fixing alcohol produc-

tion, and making other provisions covering its distribution and consumption. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 17, 1942, p. 4565.)

92. March 12, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, fixing distribution quotas for tires and tubes for the month of March 1942, in conformity with Presidential Decree No. 125 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 46, *BULLETIN*, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 18, 1942, p. 4665.)

93. March 13, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, prescribing rules for the functioning of the official supervising commissions established by Presidential Decree No. 360 of February 12, 1942 (see 68a above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 14, 1942, p. 4406.)

94. March 16, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 728, which by authority of Resolution-Law No. 5 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 45, *BULLETIN*, April 1942), reduces from 5 to 2 percent the duties on crude unvulcanized or reused rubber. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 18, 1942, p. 4597.)

95. March 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 759, prescribing rules for fulfillment of the income tax requirements as provided in Resolution-Law No. 1 of December 31, 1941 (see Cuba 33, *BULLETIN*, April 1942), as amended by Resolution-Law No. 15 (see Cuba 63, *BULLETIN*, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 19, 1942, p. 4725.)

96. March 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 762, calling into active service the members of certain classes of the Military and Naval Reserve. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 19, 1942, p. 4740.)

97. March 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 767, establishing voluntary civilian military instruction for all men between the ages of 18 and 35 years who cannot serve in the regular army. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 20, 1942, p. 4763.)

98. March 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 768, prescribing rules for blackouts of cities, principally shore points, as and when ordered by the Central Civilian Defense Board and the provincial and municipal boards. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 20, 1942, p. 4763.)

99. March 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 769, establishing a Military and Naval Board for the duration of the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 20, 1942, p. 4764.)

100. March 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 770, prohibiting the unloading, deposit, or storing of easily ignited materials and combustibles at wharves where foodstuffs are unloaded or stored. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 20, 1942, p. 4765.)

101. March 18, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, which, in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1941 (see Cuba 26, *BULLETIN*, April 1942), authorizes that permits issued for the exportation of articles subject to control shall be valid for two months from date of issue. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 19, 1942, p. 4732.)

102. March 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 771, allocating \$36,000 annually to the Minister of National Defense for expenses incurred in official police investigations pertaining to the war and the treatment of aliens who are subject to safety measures. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 20, 1942, p. 4821.)

103. March 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 851, prescribing measures for averting any transfer of government-owned keys and other coastal lands to any person or entity that might endanger the security of the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 28, 1942, p. 5365.)

104. March 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 857, prescribing the regulations for commerce in articles of prime necessity, in accordance with Resolution-Law No. 5 (Production and Supply Law) (see Cuba 45, *BULLETIN*, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 28, 1942, p. 5366.)

105. March 21, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, exempting from certain provisions of Presidential Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1941 (see Cuba 26, *BULLETIN*, April 1942), re-exportations of negatives and copies of news reels and negatives of photographs and films sent to the United States for printing, showing, or reproduction purposes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 23, 1942, p. 4920.)

106. March 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 796, allocating funds, in accordance with Resolution-Law No. 16 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 64, *BULLETIN*, May 1942), to equip the radio service of the Ministry of Communications. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 25, 1942, p. 5109.)

107. March 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 811, authorizing the National Sports Commission (*Comisión Nacional de Deportes*) to export to the United States certain aluminum scrap materials as a token of Cuban good will in helping with the war effort. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 27, 1942, p. 5241.)

108. March 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 858, prescribing restrictions and rules directed toward maintaining construction activities at a normal level, in accordance with Resolution-Law No. 5 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 45, *BULLETIN*,

April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 28, 1942, p. 5368.)

109. March 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 860, prescribing additional measures relating to blackouts as provided for in Presidential Decree No. 768 of March 7, 1942 (see 90 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 28, 1942, p. 5370.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

13. March 2, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1530, placing under direct government control all boats and vessels of the Dominican merchant marine, including river and fishing craft; prohibiting their sale or transfer; and prohibiting nationals of enemy nations from acquiring any such vessels. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 4, 1942.)

14. March 11, 1942. Law No. 695, creating Coastal Inspectors and outlining their duties for the surveillance and protection of the nation's coasts and territorial waters. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 11, 1942.)

15. March 12, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1551, establishing regulations for the protection of rubber tires in use on vehicles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 14, 1942.)

16. March 14, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1554, establishing control over the sale of gasoline and over automobile, omnibus, and autobus traffic and circulation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 16, 1942.)

17. March 17, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1558, establishing control over the sale or transfer of refrigerators in the hands of dealers and commercial houses. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 21, 1942.)

18. March 18, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1562, reorganizing the powers and duties of the Import and Export Control Commission (which was established by Law No. 479, June 10, 1941), particularly with a view to the adoption of measures made necessary by present export restrictions, priorities, quotas, etc., of other countries. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 21, 1942.)

19. March 18, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1563, naming the members of the Import and Export Control Commission. (See 18 above.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 21, 1942.)

20. March 19, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1564, prohibiting the exportation or re-exportation of all kinds of motor vehicles, accessories, and parts. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 21, 1942.)

ECUADOR

5a. December 18, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 1522, providing for the collection of promis-

sory notes endorsed to the Central Bank by the Treasurer of the National Defense Board, to be credited to the "Special National Defense Fund." (*Registro Oficial*, January 3, 1942.)

5b. December 31, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 1586, authorizing municipal officials to adopt any necessary measures for protecting and safeguarding utilities, whether publicly or privately owned. (*Registro Oficial*, January 7, 1942.)

8. January 29, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 119, prohibiting the sale or transfer of new or used automobiles, trucks, light trucks, and rubber tires and tubes for such vehicles, without special permission, and providing for the establishment of a rationing system for future sales or transfers of such goods. (*Registro Oficial*, January 29, 1942.)

9. February 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 171, requiring the Exchange, Import, and Export Control Bureau immediately to suspend all services to all persons or entities, public or private, whose names are included on the United States proclaimed list of blocked nationals (black list); ordering all banks and financial firms to freeze all funds and credits of blocked nationals; establishing two committees, one in Quito and one in Guayaquil, to take charge of the funds and credits of blocked nationals; ordering all banks to transfer to a special "blocked fund account" in the Central Bank the balances on deposit in accounts of blocked nationals; and establishing the rules and regulations for carrying out the purposes of the decree. (*El Telégrafo*, Guayaquil, February 11, 1942.)

10. February 12, 1942. Presidential Decree establishing a commercial attaché's office in the Embassy at Washington, D. C., for the purpose of effecting a broader commercial and economic understanding between Ecuador and the United States and facilitating Ecuador's purchase in the United States of manufactures and materials of prime necessity; and establishing also the office of priorities and distribution of imports under the Ministry of the Treasury for the purpose of controlling and determining the needs for articles subject to export control by the United States. (*El Telégrafo*, Guayaquil, February 13, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

11. February 18, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 2, authorizing the Executive Power, Treasury Department, to take whatever steps are necessary for the protection and continued functioning of the national economy, such as the control, restriction, or regulation of exports, imports, commer-

cial transactions, and prices of certain products, articles, or materials; and creating a Committee on Economic Coordination charged with the study and the proposal of necessary means to counteract the adverse effects of the war on the national economy. (*Diario Oficial*, February 21, 1942.)

12. February 27, 1942. Resolution No. 124, Treasury Department, naming the members of the Committee on Economic Coordination referred to above (11). (*Diario Oficial*, March 2, 1942.)

13. March 6, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 14 extending the state of siege originally declared in Legislative Decree No. 91 of December 8, 1941 (see El Salvador 2, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, March 7, 1942.)

GUATEMALA

13. February 20, 1942. Presidential Decree requiring persons engaged in the sale or distribution of foreign or imported goods to register at the Treasury Department and to obtain a business license. (*Diario de Centro América*, February 20, 1942.)

14. February 21, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2702, requiring that all payments on debts, mortgages, bonds, insurance, deposits, and balances to persons on the United States proclaimed list of blocked nationals (black list) shall be frozen in a special account in the Central Bank of Guatemala (*Banco Central de Guatemala*) for the duration of the war subject to the provisions of the Emergency Law (see Guatemala 10, BULLETIN, April 1942); with the exception of debts, credits, and balances not exceeding 200 quetzales and life insurance payments not exceeding 1,000 quetzales, in case the beneficiaries lack other adequate means of subsistence. (*Diario de Centro América*, February 24, 1942.)

15. March 10, 1942. Presidential Order providing that during the present emergency iron and steel goods may be sold only on authorization of the Office of Economic and Financial Coordination. (*Diario de Centro América*, March 12, 1942.)

HAITI

24. January 29, 1942. Executive Decree No. 113, increasing, as of February 1, 1942, the number of second lieutenants in the Infantry, Haitian National Guard. (*Le Moniteur*, February 19, 1942.)

25. February 2, 1942. Executive Decree No. 106, giving the military courts, during the state of siege, jurisdiction over crimes and misdemeanors against the security of the republic and public peace and order, and likewise, if the

President deems it necessary, over common-law crimes and offenses. (*Le Moniteur*, February 2, 1942.)

26. February 2, 1942. Executive Decree No. 107, levying for national defense purposes a special additional tax of 5 gourdes (\$1.00 U. S.) on each bag of coffee weighing 176 pounds exported from the country. (*Le Moniteur*, February 2, 1942.)

27. February 4, 1942. Executive Decree No. 108, ordering naturalized Haitians residing outside the country to return immediately to Haiti and imposing the penalty of loss of citizenship for noncompliance with the decree. (*Le Moniteur*, February 5, 1942.)

28. February 12, 1942. Executive Decree No. 111, amending Decree No. 107 of February 2, 1942 (see 26 above), by making the additional coffee tax apply specifically to coffee exported from the new 1942-43 crop and the crops of subsequent years, but not to any stocks on hand from earlier crops. (*Le Moniteur*, February 12, 1942.)

29. February 14, 1942. Executive Decree No. 112, organizing the permanent military courts or councils which were given jurisdiction over crimes and misdemeanors by Decree No. 106 of February 2, 1942 (see 25 above). (*Le Moniteur*, February 16, 1942.)

30. February 23, 1942. Executive Decree No. 116, suspending constitutional guarantees for the duration of the war. (*Le Moniteur*, February 23, 1942.)

31. February 23, 1942. Executive Decree No. 117, increasing the personnel of the Haitian National Guard. (*Le Moniteur*, February 23, 1942.)

32. February 23, 1942. Executive Decree No. 118, providing penalties for abuses of government aid and non-cooperation in government efforts to increase agricultural production. (*Le Moniteur*, February 23, 1942.)

33. February 24, 1942. Executive Decree No. 119, fixing the price of raw cotton delivered at Port-au-Prince. (*Le Moniteur*, February 26, 1942.)

34. February 25, 1942. Regulation, Department of Commerce, establishing control over the sale of motor vehicles. (*Le Matin*, Port-au-Prince, February 25, 1942.)

35. February 25, 1942. Regulation, Department of Commerce, establishing control over the sale of tires and tubes for motor vehicles. (*Le Matin*, Port-au-Prince, February 25, 1942.)

36. March 3, 1942. Executive Decree No. 120, amending Decree No. 112 of February 14, 1942

(see 29 above), with particular reference to the procedure to be followed in judgments of cases referred to the military courts. (*Le Moniteur*, March 5, 1942.)

HONDURAS

7. January 29, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 41, amending Articles 171 and 173 of the Constitution in regard to obligatory military service, increasing the age limits for active service in the army from 20 to 30 years to 18 to 32 years and the age limits for the reserve from 30 to 40 years to 32 to 45 years; and providing for retirement after 45 years of age. This amendment must be ratified by the next session of Congress. (*Boletín del Congreso Nacional Legislativo*, February 21, 1942.)

8. February 18, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 51, providing that coastal trading between ports of the Republic may be carried on only by Hondurans and Honduran boats, although foreigners or foreign enterprises already engaged in such trading may continue such activity within the law. (*La Gaceta*, February 23, 1942.)

9. February 18, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 52, authorizing the Executive Power to borrow up to \$15,000,000 to be used for building the part of the Pan American Highway passing through the Republic; for other road building projects; for establishment of a National Bank; and for the purchase of war materials to aid continental defense. (*Boletín del Congreso Nacional Legislativo*, March 7, 1942.)

10. March 2, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 63, increasing general budget allocations for the war, navy, and air departments. (*La Gaceta*, March 6, 1942.)

MEXICO

1a. December 9, 1941. Decree restricting the exportation of aluminum, tin plate, corrugated iron, structural iron, steel, scrap iron, cast iron sheets, galvanized iron sheets, cast and galvanized iron pipe, calcium carbide, wool, oats, cotton waste, hides, oleaginous seeds, cement, amorphous phosphorus, medicinal products, hand tools, and bone. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, December 19, 1941.)

19. February 24, 1942. Decree restricting the production of automobile tires and tubes; assigning production quotas to factories for the year March 15, 1942–March 14, 1943; and requiring distributors to collect the used tires or tubes when new ones are sold. Effective on date of publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, March 13, 1942.)

20. February 24, 1942. Decree establishing control of production, assembling, and disposal of new automobiles, trucks, light trucks, and autobuses, and establishing a system of priorities for their sale. Effective on date of publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, March 13, 1942.)

21. March 6, 1942. Decree adding garlic and all articles manufactured of wool or mixtures of wool to those on which exportation was restricted by the Decree of December 9, 1941. (See 1a above.) Effective on date of publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, March 30, 1942.)

NICARAGUA

10. January 13, 1942. Order of the Price and Trade Control Board freezing all stocks of tires and tubes in the Republic, forbidding their sale except in accordance with instructions of the Board. (*La Prensa*, Managua, January 13, 1942.)

11. January 27, 1942. Order of the Price and Trade Control Board fixing retail prices of medicines and pharmaceutical products. (*La Prensa*, Managua, January 27, 1942.)

12. February 1, 1942. Order of the Price and Trade Control Board freezing all stocks of motor vehicles in the Republic. (*La Prensa*, Managua, February 1, 1942.)

PANAMA

10a. December 30, 1941. Decree-Law No. 20, authorizing additional functions for the Agricultural-Stock Bank (*Banco Agro-Pecuario*), with particular respect to the importation and purchase of articles of prime necessity, the installation of rice, corn, coffee, and similar mills, and other steps necessary to prevent an undue price increase in articles of prime necessity on account of the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 8, 1942.)

12. January 12, 1942. Decree-Law No. 22, creating the National Agricultural-Stock Board (*Junta Agro-Pecuaría Nacional*) and establishing a special fund of 1,000,000 balboas for the development of the Government's agricultural plan. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 6, 1942.)

13. January 23, 1942. Decree No. 304, requiring that all persons who wish to absent themselves from the country must first obtain permits, and stipulating that such permits will be granted only when no court charges are pending against the persons and when the Government does not need their services in the present state of emergency. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 2, 1942.)

14. February 9, 1942. Decree-Law No. 27, regulating the sale of tires and tubes and automo-

bile accessories, requiring dealers to declare stocks on hand, and establishing priorities for their purchase. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 13, 1942.)

PARAGUAY

2. (Correction) January 28, 1942. Decree-Law No. 10,793, severing diplomatic, commercial, and financial relations with the Governments of Japan, Germany, and Italy. (*El País*, Asunción, January 30, 1942.)

4. January 29, 1942. Executive Decree authorizing the Agricultural Bank of Paraguay (*Banco Agrícola del Paraguay*), in view of the present international situation, to purchase from growers the nation's entire cotton crop, paying the best current prices within a fixed price range; and authorizing the Bank to engage in trade until the crop is marketed. (*El País*, Asunción, January 31, 1942.)

PERU

7. January 24, 1942. Presidential Decree organizing the Government Palace Machine Gun Battalion. (*El Peruano*, February 25, 1942.)

8. March 6, 1942. The Government announced that in accordance with the plan for intensive exploitation of the country's rubber resources, an extraordinary credit had been established for the acquisition of equipment to be made available to extractors of the various kinds of rubber, for the support of the Traveling Instruction Brigades, and for the purchase of *Hevea brasiliensis* seeds. (*El Peruano*, March 7, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

66. March 6, 1942. Executive Order No. 9088, prescribing regulations concerning civilian defense. (*Federal Register*, March 10, 1942.)

67. March 6, 1942. Executive Order No. 9089, prescribing regulations governing the use, control, and closing of stations and facilities for wire communications. (*Federal Register*, March 10, 1942.)

68. March 6, 1942. Public Law 482 (77th Congress), amending Subtitle *Insurance* of Title II of the Merchant Marine Act, 1936, as amended, extending it to remain in force until six months after termination of the war, and for other purposes.

69. March 10, 1942. Executive Order No. 9093, certifying the Island of Puerto Rico as a distressed emergency area, in order to facilitate loans to farmers for crop production and harvesting. (*Federal Register*, March 13, 1942.)

70. March 11, 1942. Executive Order No. 9095,

establishing the Office of Alien Property Custodian and defining its functions and duties. (*Federal Register*, March 13, 1942.)

71. March 12, 1942. Executive Order No. 9096, prescribing the reorganization of the Navy Department and the Naval Service affecting the office of Chief of Naval Operations and the Commander in Chief, United States Fleet. (*Federal Register*, March 17, 1942.)

72. March 13, 1942. Public Law 497 (77th Congress), suspending the effectiveness during the existing national emergency of tariff duties on scrap iron, scrap steel, and nonferrous-metal scrap.

73. March 14, 1942. Public Law 498 (77th Congress), amending the Merchant Marine Act, 1936, as amended, to provide for the coordination of the forwarding and similar servicing of waterborne export and import foreign commerce of the United States, for the efficient prosecution of the war, the maintenance and development of present and post-war foreign trade, and the preservation of forwarding facilities and services for the post-war restoration of foreign commerce.

74. March 17, 1942. Public Law 499 (77th Congress), authorizing an appropriation of \$100,000,000 for the United States Navy, additional ordnance manufacturing and production facilities, and for other purposes.

75. March 18, 1942. Executive Order No. 9102, establishing the War Relocation Authority in the Executive Office of the President and defining its functions and duties. (*Federal Register*, March 20, 1942.)

76. March 18, 1942. Executive Order No. 9103, providing uniform control over the publication and use of federal statistical information which would give aid and comfort to the enemy. (*Federal Register*, March 20, 1942.)

77. March 18, 1942. Executive Order No. 9104, withdrawing specified lands in Arizona for use of the War Department as an aerial gunnery range. (*Federal Register*, March 20, 1942.)

78. March 19, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2541, designating April 27, 1942, as the Fourth Registration Day, for the registration of all male citizens of the United States and all other male persons residing in continental United States, the Territories of Alaska and Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, between the ages of 45 and 65 years, pursuant to the provisions of the Selective Training and Service Act, as amended. (*Federal Register*, March 21, 1942.)

79. March 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 9105, amending Executive Order No. 8704 of March 4, 1941, prescribing regulations governing the granting of allowances for quarters and subsistence to enlisted men. (*Federal Register*, March 24, 1942.)

80. March 20, 1942. Executive Order No. 9106, excepting certain persons from the classification of "alien enemy" for the purpose of permitting them to apply for naturalization. (*Federal Register*, March 24, 1942.)

81. March 20, 1942. Executive Order No. 9107, withdrawing specified public lands in California for use of the War Department for military purposes. (*Federal Register*, March 24, 1942.)

82. March 21, 1942. Public Law 503 (77th Congress), providing a penalty for violation of restrictions or orders with respect to persons entering, remaining in, leaving, or committing any act in military areas or zones.

83. March 21, 1942. Executive Order No. 9108, directing the Director of the Office of Defense Transportation to take control of the Toledo, Peoria, and Western Railroad Company. (*Federal Register*, March 24, 1942.)

84. March 21, 1942. Executive Order No. 9109, revoking in part Executive Order No. 6583 of February 3, 1934, and withdrawing specified public lands in New Mexico for use of the War Department for military purposes. (*Federal Register*, March 25, 1942.)

85. March 24, 1942. Executive Order No. 9110, enlarging the Fort Gulick Military Reservation, Canal Zone. (*Federal Register*, March 26, 1942.)

86. March 25, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2543, establishing the San Francisco, Columbia River, Puget Sound, Southeastern Alaska, Prince William Sound, Kodiak, and Unalaska maritime control areas and prescribing regulations for the control thereof. (*Federal Register*, March 27, 1942.)

87. March 26, 1942. Executive Order No. 9112, authorizing the financing of contracts to facilitate the prosecution of the war. (*Federal Register*, March 28, 1942.)

88. March 27, 1942. Public Law 506 (77th Congress), amending the Reconstruction Finance Corporation Act, as amended, to provide for the financing of the War Damage Corporation in an amount not exceeding \$1,000,000,000, and for other purposes.

89. March 27, 1942. Public Law 507 (77th Congress). Second War Powers Act, to further expedite the prosecution of the war.

90. March 28, 1942. Public Law 510 (77th Congress). Public Debt Act of 1942, for the purpose of increasing the debt limit of the United States, further amending the Second Liberty Bond Act, and for other purposes.

91. March 28, 1942. Public Law 511 (77th Congress), limiting the initial base pay of \$21 per month for enlisted men in the Army and Marine Corps to those of the seventh grade.

92. March 30, 1942. Executive Order No. 9116, extending the provisions of Executive Order No. 9001 of December 27, 1941 (see United States 25, BULLETIN, April 1942) to contracts of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, the Civil Aeronautics Administration, the National Housing Agency, the Veterans' Administration, and the Federal Communications Commission. (*Federal Register*, April 2, 1942.)

URUGUAY

8a. January 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1353, authorizing increases in the enlisted strength of the Inspector General's Department of the Army and Navy and certain expenditures in connection with the Arsenal, etc. (*Diario Oficial*, February 13, 1942.)

9a. January 29, 1942. Presidential Decree cancelling the appointments of specified Italians as honorary consuls and vice-consuls of Uruguay in Italy. (*Diario Oficial*, February 9, 1942.)

10. February 4, 1942. Presidential Decree extending to ships of the British Navy and of any other extra-continental nation that in the judgment of the Executive Power is contributing to hemispheric defense the same special facilities as are already available to ships of the American nations. (Mimeographed copy of the decree.)

VENEZUELA

12. February 3, 1942. Treasury Ministry Resolution authorizing the importation of cellulose in unperforated sheets, provided it is destined exclusively for the manufacture of paper. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 3, 1942.)

13. February 3, 1942. Resolution No. 6, National Price Regulation Board, ordering that the maximum selling prices of automobiles, trucks, and light trucks in the Federal District and in the Sucre District of the State of Miranda shall be fixed in each case by the said Board, requiring inventories of stocks on hand, and freezing such stocks until further notice or authorization by the Board. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 3, 1942.)

14. February 6, 1942. Treasury Ministry Resolution delegating to the Import Control Commission the duties, functions, and authority in regard to import licenses and establishing rules and regulations for the obtention of such licenses. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 6, 1942.)

15. March 10, 1942. Treasury Ministry Resolution prohibiting the exportation or re-exportation, without previous permission of the Ministry, of automobiles and trucks in general. (*Noticias de Venezuela*, Oficina Nacional de Prensa, Caracas, March 13, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

7. March 9, 1942. Establishment of the Anglo-American Caribbean Commission for the purpose of encouraging and strengthening social and economic cooperation between the United States of America and its possessions and bases in the Caribbean area and the United Kingdom and the British colonies in the same area. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, March 14, 1942.)

8. March 13, 1942. Official statement of the Peruvian Minister of Foreign Affairs to the effect that the Government of the United States, in accordance with the Lease-Lend Law, granted Peru a loan of \$29,000,000 for the acquisition of defense materials. (*El Peruano*, March 14, 1942.)

9. March 30, 1942. First meeting at Washington, D. C., of the Inter-American Defense Board, established by Resolution No. XXXIX of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign

Affairs of the American Republics. (See *BULLETIN*, June 1942, pp. 335-40.)

10. April 7, 1942. Joint statement by Dr. Ezequiel Padilla, Mexican Secretary of Foreign Affairs, and Sumner Welles, Acting Secretary of State of the United States, of a series of arrangements for facilitating the productions effort of Mexico in collaboration with the United States for war purposes, including negotiation of the trade agreement previously announced; establishment in Mexico of a series of basic industries, including steel and tin plate rolling; establishment of a Mexican office in Washington to deal with priorities and allocations; a survey of Mexican railways with a view to improving them, particularly through providing new rolling stock, and permitting the transportation to the United States of strategic war materials produced in Mexico; making available to Mexico material and tools for the construction of small cargo vessels; and building a high-octane gasoline plant in Mexico. (*Bulletin*, U. S. Department of State, April 11, 1942.) (See pp. 313-17.)

11. April 8, 1942. Announcement by the United States Secretary of Commerce of the signing of an agreement between the Export-Import Bank of Washington, the Republic of Cuba, and *Comisión de Fomento Nacional*, an agency of the Cuban government, regarding the \$25,000,000 credit authorized in May 1941 to finance agricultural development and diversification and public works throughout Cuba. (*Press release*, Secretary of Commerce of the United States, April 8, 1942.)

Pan American News

Meeting of Representatives of Central Banks

On April 16, 1942, the Inter-American Economic and Financial Advisory Committee announced that it considered this an opportune time to hold a meeting of representatives from the central banks, or similar institutions, of the American Republics. The object of the meeting, as recommended in Resolution VI by the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics held in Rio de Janeiro, would be to draw up standard procedures for the uniform handling of bank credits, collections, leases and consignments of merchandise involving real or juridical persons who are nationals of a State which has committed an act of aggression against the American continent.

The Committee suggested that the meeting be held in Washington prior to July 1, 1942, thus allowing ample time for arrangements and for the delegates to secure from their respective governments as complete information as possible on the questions to be treated.

When the Committee advised the Governments of this decision it asked them for their opinions regarding the agenda for the Conference. They were also asked for detailed data on the methods of control and administrative practices now being used in connection with the transactions listed in Resolution VI.

Bolivian-United States agreements

On February 12, 1942 the Bolivian Government approved an agreement which was signed in Rio de Janeiro

January 27 of the same year. As a result of the settlement the Bolivian Government will pay the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey the sum of \$1,500,000 in United States currency, for the sale of all its rights, interests and properties in Bolivia and those of its subsidiary, Standard Oil Company of Bolivia, as they existed immediately prior to March 13, 1937 and likewise for the sale of its existing maps and geological studies which are the result of its explorations in Bolivia. This payment will be made with interest at the rate of three percent per annum, from March 13, 1937, within ninety days from the date of the approval of the agreement. With this settlement all issues which had been pending between the Government of Bolivia and these companies were satisfactorily and amicably settled.

At the same time it was announced that the Export-Import Bank of Washington will grant Bolivia a \$5,500,000 loan for the development of the oil industry in Bolivia. This loan is separate from the \$25,000,000 granted the Bolivian Government for the Corporación de Fomento, also created by an agreement signed in Rio de Janeiro by the Minister of Foreign Affairs of Bolivia and the Undersecretary of State of the United States of America.

Argentine-Bolivian Railroad Treaty

The treaty on railroad connections that Bolivia signed with Argentina February 10, 1941, went into effect February 6, 1942, pending ratification. As a result of this agreement Argentina will advance Bolivia up to 12,200,000 pesos for the building of the frontier-Villa Montes

section of the Yacuiba-Santa Cruz de la Sierra-Sucre Railroad. This is to be finished within two years under the supervision of an Argentine-Bolivian railroad commission.

The amount of money advanced Bolivia by Argentina will be repaid with three percent simple interest per annum; and amortization at the rate of five percent per annum will be made in crude oil, fuel oil, Argentine pesos, American dollars or any other generally accepted currency. This will begin immediately following the completion of the first section of the railway between the Argentine-Bolivian border and Villa Montes. As a guarantee for the loan the Bolivian Government is offering the proceeds from the sale of crude and fuel oil in the regions crossed or reached by the Yacuiba-Santa Cruz de la Sierra-Sucre railroad and the Bermejo-Orán pipe line.

Argentine-Bolivian Agreement on Highway Construction

On February 18, 1942, the Bolivian Cabinet approved the Agreement on Highway Connections signed in Buenos Aires the sixth of that same month by the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of both countries. According to this agreement the National Highway Board of Argentina and the General Bureau of Public Works of Bolivia will together undertake the survey of the roads intended to unite the cities of Tarija and Potosí in Bolivia with the Argentine highway system. The Argentine Government will advance the necessary funds for this survey, the loan to be reimbursed by the Bolivian Government.

When the survey is finished and approved construction will be started on the road to Tarija. For this work the Argentine Government will advance Bolivia up to 10,000,000 pesos, which will be guaranteed

by the production of the Bolivian oil fields. If this amount is insufficient to finish this road and the one to Potosí additional funds will be advanced under similar terms.

Agreements between the Governments of Peru and the United States

ON April 23, 1942, the Department of State of the United States announced that the visit to Washington of the Minister of Finance and Commerce of Peru, Señor David Dasso, had been brought to a close by the exchange with the Secretary of State of notes incorporating a series of important decisions on matters of collaboration between Peru and the United States in attaining a number of the objectives of the resolutions of the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro in January.

In accordance with the agreements measures will be adopted for the mobilization of the resources of Peru for the production of strategic materials essential for the security of the hemisphere, involving especially the establishment by Peru of a Peruvian Amazon Corporation for the purpose of developing the production and encouraging the collection of wild rubber and other tropical products of strategical importance. A fund of \$1,125,000 will be made available to Peru by the Rubber Reserve Company for increasing the production of wild rubber. Over a period of five years that company will acquire all rubber produced other than a specified amount required for essential uses in Peru.

The Export-Import Bank will establish a credit in favor of the Banco Central de Reserva del Perú in the sum of \$25,000,000 to assist in financing purchases in the United States of materials and equipment required in connection with the construc-

tion and development in Peru of useful public works and of agricultural, mining, and industrial projects.

An agreement was made with the United States Secretary of Agriculture for the establishment of an agricultural experiment station at Tingo María and arrangements were made for the loan to the Government of Peru of the services of experts of appropriate agencies of the United States in highway engineering, erosion control, coal mining, and tea processing.

The Department of Agriculture agreed to purchase, through the Commodity Credit Corporation, for the duration of the war, that portion of the Peruvian cotton production which is in excess of sales for Peruvian consumption and for export to other purchasers. These purchases, which will not exceed a maximum of 200,000 bales annually, will replace the market lost by Peru as a result of the war. The Commodity Credit Corporation will pay a base price equivalent to 10.69 cents per pound for cotton of good middling 13-16 inches staple. This price will apply to cotton produced in 1942 but the rate for the following crops will depend on the area planted. The Peruvian Government will try to bring about a reduction in the area planted to cotton by shifting to flax, rice, beans, and other food crops needed during the war by the United Nations.

The Minister of Finance and Commerce also announced the recent adoption by his Government of further measures to control the commercial and financial operations of firms and persons whose activities are deemed inimical to the security of the hemisphere, and the readiness of his Government to consult with the Government of the United States regarding any measures which may be necessary to prevent such persons from benefiting by the agreements reached be-

tween the two Governments. He also stated that he is engaged in discussions with the Foreign Bondholders Protective Council, Inc., looking toward a resumption of payments on the Peruvian dollar debt.

While in Washington the Minister discussed a number of other matters of mutual interest to the two Governments, including details of arrangements under the Lend-Lease Agreement and export control, priorities, and allocations questions relating to the importation by Peru from the United States of materials and equipment needed for the maintenance of Peruvian mining productions, transportation, and essential civilian needs.

Senor Dasso and Secretary of State Hull agreed that this program of further collaboration between the two Governments will contribute greatly to the security of the hemisphere.

Bolivian Agricultural Bank

February 11, 1942 a decree was issued creating the Agricultural Bank, which is to have its main office in La Paz, an authorized capital of 200,000,000 bolivianos and a paid-in capital of 50,000,000 bolivianos, of which the Central Bank will contribute 30,000,000 and the Government 20,000,000. The board of directors will be made up of four representatives: two, including the President, appointed by the Government, one by the Central Bank, and one by the rural associations of the Republic. In addition to the functions and duties prescribed under the law of February 29, 1940, the bank will handle the following operations: receive deposits in current accounts; organize exchanges for agricultural and industrial products; buy raw materials produced from agriculture and semiprocessed products for distribution to industry in general;

import seeds, fertilizers, purebred livestock, raw materials, machinery and tools for farming purposes; and buy and sell foreign currency. The Bank is authorized to establish branches or agencies in any part of Bolivia, with the approval of the Superintendent of Banks.

Sugar mill in Santa Cruz, Bolivia

A firm of Santa Cruz industrialists will soon set up a large sugar mill which is expected to produce some 8,000,000 pounds of sugar per annum, an amount sufficient to take care of the country's supply of a first-class product without resorting to the foreign market. Santa Cruz was previously a center for this industry, at a time when it depended only on the primitive means of the colonial epoch. The machinery for the mill has already been purchased from a large Argentine firm, and final arrangements are being completed so that operations can begin this year.

Mineral exports from Bolivia, Brazil and Cuba

According to statistics published by the Mining Bank of Bolivia, the year 1941 was the best in the entire history of the country for the export of metals, its principal source of wealth. Tin led in value, but tungsten made the best proportional showing with an increase between 1937 and 1941 of 243 percent. With the great importance that minerals of strategic value have today and the constant increase in their use in the construction of war materials, this Bolivian trade will undoubtedly continue to occupy an important place.

The large share of Brazilian mineral exports going to the United States is clearly shown in table III.

In table IV, dealing with Cuban ore exports, the increase in manganese shipped is of special interest. Exports of manganese in the first half of 1941 were larger than those for all of 1939.

TABLE I.—*Value of Bolivian mineral exports in thousands of bolivianos*

Minerals	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Tin.....	1,137,391	898,573	1,162,440	1,839,944	2,218,602
Silver.....	146,480	95,794	113,894	81,697	101,110
Tungsten.....	60,612	71,887	86,082	127,845	210,471
Lead.....	78,775	37,255	39,834	52,621	81,000
Zinc.....	49,367	27,950	21,271	65,257	32,480
Antimony.....	49,172	44,432	63,776	90,411	98,505
Copper.....	38,108	21,598	33,069	64,603	70,356
Gold (as byproduct).....	5,569	13,536	12,068	16,132	12,155
Bismuth.....	2,520	1,411	1,077	685	786
Sulphur.....	1,515	1,786	2,156	3,682	1,894
Asbestos.....	96	85	7	187	2,702
Others.....	233	456	94	19	153
Total.....	1,569,838	1,214,763	1,535,768	2,343,083	2,830,214
Index (1928=100).....	105	81	102	156	188

TABLE II.—*Volume of Bolivian mineral exports in fine metric tons*

Minerals	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941
Tin.....	25,531	25,893	27,648	38,531	42,740
Lead.....	18,288	13,168	14,110	11,663	15,653
Zinc.....	11,529	10,706	7,769	12,197	6,065
Antimony.....	7,127	9,437	10,060	11,753	14,870
Copper.....	3,693	2,885	4,056	6,660	7,274
Sulphur.....	1,739	1,658	2,160	4,130	2,486
Tungsten.....	1,081	1,517	2,002	2,510	2,613
Silver.....	294	198	225	175	229
Bismuth.....	31	17	13	19	11
Asbestos.....	21	21	2	70	210
Gold.....	133
Others.....	45	333	530	35
Total.....	69,512	65,833	68,575	87,743	92,151
Index (1928 = 100).....	100	95	99	126	133

TABLE III.—*Brazilian mineral exports to the United States, first 9 months of 1941*

Mineral	Kilograms	Milreis	Percentage of total value of minerals exported
Asbestos.....	2,000	100.0
Silicious sand, diatom earth, diatomite.....	22,000	100.0
Quartz.....	590,516	28,106,209	51.5
Beryl.....	611,227	371,311	48.4
Agates.....	5,410	83,076	76.4
Unspecified stones.....	407,042	178,936	41.9
Mica.....	316,926	5,471,830	29.7
Diamonds.....	¹ 30,108	67,752,502	64.0
Aquamarines.....	¹ 26,080	1,912,092	25.4
Amethysts.....	¹ 45,286	666,336	94.0
Topazes.....	¹ 16,561	175,821	62.4
Tourmalines.....	¹ 3,412	238,027	49.8
Semiprecious stones, not specified.....	¹ 371,129	1,431,107	82.6
Industrial diamonds.....	¹ 1,414	840,986	22.6
Bauxite.....	2,632,500	31,257	86.8
Chromium (ore).....	2,905,760	839,638	100.0
Iron (ore).....	² 100,532	6,588,237	28.5
Manganese (ore).....	² 294,053	53,587,011	95.7
Titanic iron ore (ilmenite).....	2,620,924	610,335	100.0
Rutile.....	825,863	1,762,339	56.5
Monazite sand.....	439,000	319,525	100.0
Zircon (ore).....	4,314,361	1,744,345	92.9
Tantalite.....	32,905	625,754	59.0
Coal.....	² 300	23,520	.4
Nickel.....	2,0005
Goldsmith's dust.....	10,503	340,000	95.8

¹ Grams.² Tons.Source: *Boletim do Conselho Federal de Comércio Exterior*, Rio de Janeiro, December 15, 1941.

TABLE IV.—*Ore exports from Cuba in recent years*

Ores	1938		1939		1940		1941 (6 months)	
	Kilograms	Value	Kilograms	Value	Kilograms	Value	Kilograms	Value
Copper.....	50,738,476	\$2,342,119	39,586,312	\$1,666,471	40,161,379	\$1,848,377	16,426,966	\$751,874
Iron.....	99,424,895	238,717	202,160,678	482,264	109,453,322	288,578	23,503,866	57,212
Baryte.....	6,162,615	30,443	10,671,175	54,571	16,105,069	141,141	12,962,176	141,608
Chrome.....	34,974,665	175,301	63,270,573	362,743	53,583,939	328,985	63,117,430	455,943
Gold.....	1,843,097	136,126	558,617	134,799	319,496	43,796	115,185	15,620
Magnesite.....			554,404	5,531				
Manganese.....	121,925,249	2,254,909	107,661,897	1,801,106	133,361,406	3,210,291	110,642,687	2,801,133
Silica.....	50,100,000	77,655	82,600,000	119,060	88,700,000	124,180	55,500,000	77,700
Other ores.....	2,754	80	1,763	634	11,563,964	29,454	49,925	1,848
Total.....	365,171,751	5,255,350	507,065,419	4,627,179	453,248,575	6,014,802	282,318,235	4,302,938

Source: General Statistical Bureau, Ministry of Finance, quoted in *Cuba Económica y Financiera*, Habana, October 1941.

Pan American Airways expands hemisphere services

Pan American Airways announced on April 22, 1942, that it was immediately increasing the 4-engine Clipper service across the Caribbean Sea between Miami, Florida, and the Panama Canal Zone. The addition of the new service will bring to 28 the number of weekly schedules now operated between the United States and this strategic point of hemisphere defense, which also serves as the gateway to South America's Pacific coast. From the Panama Canal Zone, the Associated Pan American-Grace Airways now operates six connecting schedules onward to Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chile, and over the Andes to the border of Brazil and to Buenos Aires. The company planned to add very soon a seventh schedule, to provide daily service between the Canal Zone and the west coast countries and Argentina.

Detailed plans have been advanced for the increase of schedules to provide daily service along the eastern trunk airline which follows the rim of the Atlantic from the tip of Florida to Rio de Janeiro and on to Buenos Aires, the most distant capital in the hemisphere. The operation of multi-engined landplanes will provide a

high speed express air route to the capitals and commercial centers of Brazil, Uruguay, and Argentina.

The extent to which the inter-American movement of men and material has been shifted to the air is revealed for the first time in a report covering the extension of United States services in Latin America since the outbreak of war. Statistics from this report show that with steamship schedules curtailed, the bulk of all inter-American mail, passenger and express traffic is now routed by air throughout the hemisphere.

Today, at the rate of more than 1,000,000 miles a month, the landplanes and flying boats of the Clipper fleet are making scores of flights each week between North and South America and more than 100 flights weekly within Central and South America, maintaining over one hundred planes in the air practically every hour of the day over intra-hemisphere routes. In comparison with the 11,000 passengers carried monthly between the Americas before the emergency, the Clippers are now transporting some 26,000 monthly. Mail and express cargoes have increased to nearly 750,000 pounds a month.

Routes of the Pan American Airways System and its associated nationalized airlines in Mexico, Cuba, Colombia, Brazil,

and Bolivia have been extended to replace some 30,000 miles of air routes formerly controlled by the Axis. To clear such elements from the South American air transport field, the United States services have increased their operating route mileage from 37,000 miles, in September 1939, to more than 57,000 miles in Central and South America. The recent extension of Clipper service has eliminated the Italian LATI line, the last serious Axis airline threat to the security of the hemisphere.

Although comparatively few new transports could be made available for the inter-American air service, doubled and sometimes trebled maintenance facilities and other forced-draft emergency operations have enabled Pan American Airways to increase its previous operating levels by nearly fifty percent.

At the present time, the Pan American Clippers are flying fourteen schedules weekly, with two Clippers in each direction each day, between Brownsville, Texas, and the Panama Canal Zone. Daily service connecting Mexico City with Los Angeles, combined with the Central American service, parallels the Pacific Coast for 3,000 miles from Los Angeles to the Canal Zone.

On routes designed to crisscross the Caribbean, daily schedules are now being operated from Miami directly across the Caribbean Sea to the Canal with a big 4-engined strato-clipper that leaps the 1,200

miles in approximately six hours. Linking Cuba and Jamaica on the Caribbean circuit, three additional schedules are operated across the Caribbean from Miami to Barranquilla, Colombia, passing west of Aruba and the Dutch West Indies. A third trans-Caribbean route from Miami, operating via Port-au-Prince, Haiti, crosses the eastern arc of the Caribbean twice weekly on schedules to Maracaibo, Venezuela's oil-producing center.

Further east, the Clippers fly five weekly schedules south through the lower West Indies to Trinidad, whence four continue 6,000 miles down the east coast of South America to Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires. Service along the vital north coast of South America, between Trinidad on the east and the Panama Canal Zone on the west, has been raised to a daily basis.

Between the United States and Cuba, service has recently been increased to five daily schedules with three weekly schedules operating between Cuba and Mexico across the sea entrance to the Gulf of Mexico.

In addition to these regular services, the report reveals that since the United States declared war on the Axis, Clippers have made more than 500 extra flights between the United States and Central and South America. All told, these extra flights are adding more than 150,000 miles of flying to inter-American Clipper schedules every month.

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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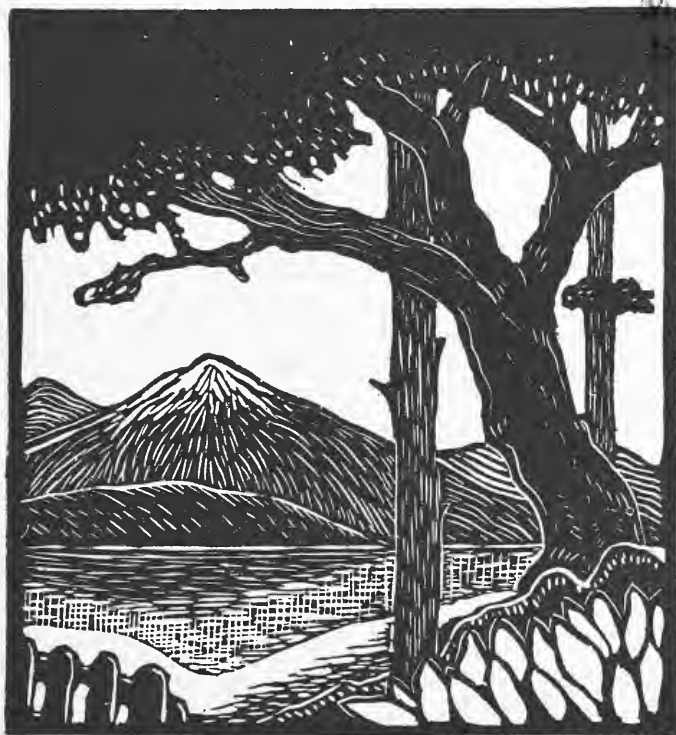


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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: PATIO, PAN AMERICAN UNION





DELEGATES TO THE EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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The Significance of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress

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THE lovely building of the Pan American Union, with its moonlit Aztec Garden, was never more beautiful than on the May evening (the second of the month) which witnessed the formal opening of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress. Many diplomatic, scientific, and humanitarian conferences of the American Republics had been held in the stately Hall of the Americas, each one enlarging the Pan American concept which had led Bolívar to call the first Pan American conference in Panama as soon as the liberation of Hispano-America had been completed. But this was the first time that the United States had been host to a Congress devoted entirely to the children of the Americas and to the ways in which their security, happiness, and welfare might be assured and they might best be

prepared for citizenship in a world of free men and women.

In seven previous Child Congresses, the first held in Argentina in 1916, during the first World War, and the others in Uruguay, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Peru, and Mexico, ideas and experience had been exchanged and recommendations adopted which have had a marked influence upon the development of national and local services for children under both public and private auspices. After Pearl Harbor, one had wondered whether the Eighth Congress could be held at all, in view of transportation and other difficulties. Those consulted in the United States and other countries agreed, however, that now more than ever, when the future of free civilization hangs in the balance, it was essential that the Governments counsel together

concerning the ways in which childhood could be safeguarded in the midst of world-wide conflict, and how the needs of children could best be planned for and served in the period following the conclusion of the struggle.

Great was the surprise and joy of those responsible for organizing and planning for the Congress when a gathering as representative as any previous Congress assembled, including official delegates from every American Republic and many representatives of professional associations, private organizations, and individual effort. Most of the delegates had been flown over mountains and oceans, and some had driven in a station wagon all the way from Mexico City. These doctors, teachers, and social workers, heads and staff members of official government departments and other organizations, came to participate in a week of concentrated consideration of the many subjects of far-reaching importance included on the agenda. Morning, afternoon, and often in the evening, they worked in general sessions, small committees, and section meetings, and after the Congress adjourned the activities of most of the delegates were intensified as they saw all they could of programs in operation in the United States. Their visits to various parts of the country were made possible through the assistance of many organizations and groups, who welcomed the stimulus, insight, and information contributed by our guests from the sister nations of the western hemisphere.

The heads of the three inter-American agencies whose work is of special importance with reference to children were active participants in the Congress and honorary vice-chairmen: Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union, Dr. Roberto Berro, Director of the American International Institute for

the Protection of Childhood, and Dr. Hugh S. Cumming, Director of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau.

Women attained recognition in this Congress not before received in similar gatherings. The chairmen of the two largest delegations—those of Mexico and the United States—were women, and well-prepared, competent women were included in the delegations of seven other countries, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Haiti, and Peru, making 9 of the 21 Republics sending official women delegates. Individual members included the Vice Chairman of the Inter-American Commission of Women and two delegates to the Commission, a representative of the Venezuelan Association of Women, and students of pediatrics, health, and social work from a number of American Republics, now studying in the United States.

The distinguished and responsible character of the delegations is indicated by the standing of the 21 chairmen who signed the "Declaration of Opportunities for Children" adopted by the Congress. Heads of national children's bureaus or divisions of child health or child welfare in departments of national governments were chairmen of the delegations of Argentina, Chile, Colombia, Mexico, Peru, Uruguay, Venezuela, and the United States. Members of staffs of such divisions or of national departments of health were chairmen of the delegations of Bolivia, Brazil, and Paraguay. Physicians occupying important posts in hospitals, medical institutes, or medical schools were chairmen of the delegations of Costa Rica, Cuba (which appointed the Director General of the Finlay Institute), Honduras and Panama. Heads of important medical divisions in national departments of health were chairmen of the delegations from the Dominican Republic and Ecuador. The Minister of El Salvador, the Minister of



Courtesy of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs

THE CLOSING SESSION OF THE EIGHTH PAN AMERICAN CHILD CONGRESS

President Prado of Peru stands at the microphone. Those seated at the table are, left to right: Señora Carmen de Lozada, Bolivian representative on the Inter-American Commission of Women; Dr. Mario H. Bortagaray, chairman of the Argentine delegation; the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States; Miss Katherine Lenroot, chairman of the United States delegation and president of the Conference; and Dr. Robert Berro, Director of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood in Montevideo.

Haiti, and the Minister of Nicaragua in Washington were chairmen of their delegations, and the First Secretary of the Guatemalan Legation served his country as the official delegate.

Also of great significance was the representative character of the members of delegations. The President of the Federation of Societies for Assistance to Lepers and Prevention of Leprosy, a woman especially commissioned by the Government of Brazil to study methods of civil defense in the United States, was a delegate from that country. On the delegation from Chile was a well-prepared woman psychiatrist, while one of the leading pediatricians of the western hemisphere, who had been Secretary General of the Fourth Pan American Child Congress, represented the Society of Pediatrics of Chile. The delegation from Colombia

was led by the Chief of the National Children's Agency, and included a distinguished pediatrician and a nurse. The Costan Rican delegation included a member of the National Child Welfare Agency, who is to teach in the newly founded school of social work, and a nurse superintendent of the Maternity Hospital of San José. In the Cuban delegation were the Secretary of the National Child Welfare Council in the Department of Labor, the head of the National Child Labor Office in the same department, and a journalist in another government department. The Secretary General of the Fifth Pan American Child Congress, which was held in Cuba, addressed the Eighth Congress at its closing session, giving a brilliant review of the work of the whole series of Child Congresses. Professors of education and the Medical Director of the Red Cross were individual

members from Cuba. Pediatricians and social workers were numbered among the official delegates or individual members from Colombia, Ecuador, Haiti, Mexico, Paraguay, and Uruguay. The delegate from Honduras, a distinguished pediatrician, was the Vice President of the Honduran Red Cross. El Salvador sent 5 official delegates headed by the Minister Plenipotentiary of that country, and including the President of the National Child Welfare Association in the Department of Public Health and Social Welfare. Among the official delegates and individual members from Peru there were, in addition to the chairman, a member of the Chamber of Deputies and the secretary to the Assistant Director of the Pan American Union.

Mexico was in a favorable position for attendance at the Congress because of the relative ease of travel from that country and sent a distinguished and representative delegation of 14, including important officials and staff members of the Departments of Public Assistance, Interior, Labor and Social Insurance, Justice, Education, and Public Health, and the Director and Assistant Director of the Children's Hospital.

In addition to the outstanding contributions of governments through the delegations, whose members presented important papers and served as chairmen of committees and officers of sections, a majority of the national committees charged with preparation for the Congress sent valuable reports of progress in various fields since the Seventh Congress was held in Mexico in 1935, and also transmitted papers from leading officials and scientists, some of whom were not able to attend the Congress in person.

One of the most important papers was a review of the nutrition problems of the western hemisphere by Dr. Pedro

Escudero, Director General of the National Institute of Nutrition in Buenos Aires. In this paper Dr. Escudero declared, "The Latin American continent is living a veritable tragedy of hunger which goes back to the time of its discovery," and said that the Eighth Pan American Child Congress provided an occasion "to constitute an entity which will bring together those interested in solving the problem." Acting upon this and other similar suggestions the Congress adopted recommendations of the Committee on Inter-American Cooperation, calling upon the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood to "study the nutrition problems of the children of the Americas, utilizing the facilities offered by the Republic of Argentina, the United States of America, Cuba, and other countries of the Continent, and carrying on the work in cooperation with the Pan American Sanitary Bureau and other inter-American and national agencies."

The subject of nutrition was only one of several subjects acted upon by the Congress which require immediate attention. The Committee on Protection of Mothers and Children in Danger Zones, under the able chairmanship of Dr. Carlos Andrade Marín of Ecuador, a country familiar with earthquake and evacuation problems, suggested to the Governments of the American Republics the desirability of appointing committees on the protection of mothers and children in wartime, or entrusting these duties to existing organizations, the work to begin with a census and identification of the child population. These committees were urged to undertake an immediate study of the problems and measures necessary for evacuation from danger zones, and it was further recommended that the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, through the Children's Bureau

of the United States Department of Labor, make available all the reports of its work in this field of protection of mothers and children, that it send questionnaires periodically to the different American Governments in order to learn the work that they are doing, and that it instruct the representatives whom the countries may send for training.

The work of the Congress and the recommendations included in the Final Act, signed by all the official delegates at the closing session, were characterized by emphasis upon three major points: (1) the ways in which the immediate needs of children could be served and their interests safeguarded during the period of world-wide conflict; (2) the ideals and principles which should govern our planning for children in the post-war world, a subject which, it was recognized, cannot be divorced from other aspects of post-war planning, especially those relating to the conditions under which a stable and adequate family life may be made possible; and (3) the methods by which both immediate measures and plans for children in the post-war period may be carried out through inter-American agencies reinforced in the degree necessary to carry on a broader and more intensive program, and through the collaboration of countries possessing greater technical experience in the protection of childhood.

The session given over to a review of progress made in work for children since the Seventh Pan American Child Congress was held at Mexico City in 1935 provided a background for the recommendations of the Congress with reference to Essential Services to Mothers and Children as Affected by War Conditions and Plans for Children in the Post-War World. The reports constituted an impressive record of the extension of social security and labor legislation; of expanded and im-

proved maternal and child health services and declining mortality rates; of strengthened school programs and of increased emphasis on popular education; and of definite recognition of the value of trained personnel, reflected in the establishment of schools of social work and new interest in schools of nursing and in the loan or exchange of experts between different countries and provision for fellowships for study in technical fields. Against this background, however, delegate after delegate painted a picture of the effect of war on the structure so patiently erected during the past seven years. Shortage of food supplies in certain countries because of difficulties of transportation and other factors and in one country conversion of certain health facilities from civilian use to military purposes were among the problems reported.

The recommendations of the Committee on Essential Services for Mothers and Children as Affected by War Conditions, whose Chairman was the head of the Mexican Delegation, Dra. Mathilde Rodríguez Cabo, embraced three general groups of proposals, incorporated in the Final Act of the Congress: (1) Measures to maintain and extend in time of war health services for mothers and children; (2) measures for maintaining and extending in time of war educational and recreational services, and regulation of the work of minors; and (3) measures to obtain the economic stability of the family and to maintain and extend social services for children under conditions created by the war.

The report of the Committee on Plans for Children in the Post-War World, of which Dr. Guillermo Morales Beltrami of Chile was Chairman, included a resolution to the effect that the Eighth Pan American Child Congress desired to restate and reaffirm the objectives of the Americas for their children and insure

that those objectives should have a primary place in the planning for that just and lasting peace to which the nations of the Americas look forward. The Declaration of Opportunities for Children, in the four languages of the Congress, signed at the closing session by the Chairmen of the Official Delegations and the Director of the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, defined as follows seven opportunities to which every child should be entitled:

i. Opportunity for every child to grow up within the loving care and affectionate discipline of family life.

ii. Opportunity for every child to obtain the essential elements of wholesome, healthful living.

iii. Opportunity for every child to discover his special abilities and to secure education and training to develop these powers.

iv. Opportunity for every child to develop responsibility and to learn to participate in the life of the community.

v. Opportunity for every child to use creatively part of his free time in developing skills and practicing activities of his choice, individual as well as social.

vi. Opportunity for every child as a citizen to take his place in the life of the community.

vii. Opportunity for every child to take part, creatively, in transforming the raw materials of human life into usefulness or beauty.

Following this Declaration, which specified under each heading steps to make the opportunity effective, was a statement that measures for assuring opportunity for children now and in the post-war period must be based upon action to strengthen the economic and cultural foundations of family life. A series of such measures was outlined under headings relating to international, national, and local action, the responsibility of parents, and general emphasis upon the fundamental human rights which a free society must cherish and uphold.

The Chairman of the Committee on Inter-American Cooperation, which was

concerned chiefly with the American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood, was Dr. Pastor Oropeza of Venezuela. The Director of the Institute was a member of this Committee, as was Dr. Edward C. Ernst of the Pan American Sanitary Bureau. Dr. William Manger, Counselor of the Pan American Union and Secretary General of the Congress, served as technical consultant. It should be added that the Congress was fortunate in having in its membership the Secretary, as well as the Director, of the Institute, whose President, Dr. Aráoz Alfaro of Argentina, although unable to be present in person, was elected Honorary President of the Congress, and sent a message read at the opening session.

The recommendations of the Committee, which were adopted by the Congress, related primarily to measures for strengthening the organization of the Institute and enlarging the scope of its work, at the same time bringing it into closer relationship with other inter-American agencies and with national organizations, both public and private. Inasmuch as only 14 countries are now members of the Institute and a number of these are in arrears in the payment of their quotas, it was urged that delegates take all possible steps to secure the adherence of Governments not already members and the payment of quotas. Modification of the basis on which the quotas are fixed was suggested. The report also recommended that the International Council, or Governing Board, of the Institute be reorganized, that the member of the International Council designated by the Government of each member country be assisted by a committee of advisers appointed by the Government and representing the different fields of child welfare, and that the Institute, in agreement with the Pan American Union, have the duty

of designating the seats of future Pan American Child Congresses and preparing the regulations and program in consultation with the Organizing Committee of the country where the Congress is to be held. These recommendations will be considered by the International Council of the Institute, which has jurisdiction over amendment of its bylaws.

The Eighth Pan American Child Congress was a working body, but there were colorful and inspiring moments—the formal opening in the Hall of the Americas; the luncheon addressed by Mrs. Roosevelt, with the Secretary of Labor of the United States, the Hon. Frances Perkins, presiding, and the Federal Security Administrator, Hon. Paul V. McNutt, one of the honor guests; the evening at the White House, with addresses by the Hon. Adolf A. Berle, Jr., Assistant Secretary of State, and by the chairmen of the delegations of Cuba, Mexico, and Uruguay; a trip to Mount Vernon; and dinners arranged by professional associations in honor of special groups—pediatricians, educators, and social workers. Dr. Enrique Saladrigas, chairman of the delegation from Cuba and Director of the Finlay Institute of Habana, said at the White House: “Military victory will be succeeded by peace, and this peace will be the more durable as the physical and mental health of the American people is the more vigorous; and in this connection I wish to point out that our prosperity is in direct ratio to the attention we give our children.”

A message from the President of the United States, read at the opening session by the Assistant Secretary of State, the Hon. Breckinridge Long, said in part:

I wish that it were possible for me personally to greet you in this opening session, and to thank you for coming such long distances, at great personal inconvenience, in order that we may

counsel together concerning the ways in which childhood may be safeguarded in the midst of war, and assured the fullest opportunity in the future which we are struggling to make one of hope and freedom and development for all human beings. You will feel, I trust, that the city named for the first President of the oldest American Republic is truly your home, a place where the ideals of Washington, Bolívar, San Martín, Tiradentes, O'Higgins, and the other great Liberators may find expression in a Congress devoted to the interests of children.

Your deliberations and the firmness of your purpose to apply to the practical concerns of every-day life the principles which you will here declare will contribute in great measure to the extension and fulfillment of the good-neighbor policy as the basic principle of international association.

The closing session has been described as one of oratory, pageantry, and inspiration, heightened by the presence of the President of Peru, Dr. Manuel Prado y Ugarteche, who spoke with sympathy and insight of the importance of strengthening the foundations of child life in the Americas. In this session Dr. Pedro de Alba, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union, declared, “All the people in the Americas are defending their future in adopting for their children the resolutions of this Pan American Child Congress.” Dr. Mario H. Bortagaray of Argentina, elected spokesman for his colleagues at the closing session, referred to the “unprecedentedly successful results” of the Congress during a week in which “the 21 countries of America, working together for a common purpose, have shown the world that the words ‘inter-American solidarity and cooperation’ have on our lips a warmth of sincerity and loyalty and, above all, of devotion to the sacred principle—democracy—under which we were all born. Before us is the wonderful example of this great nation at war, united, organized, brave, and impregnable, today defending that sacred principle.”

A part of the address by the writer at the closing session is here repeated:

Our chief task as we separate to go by rail and by air to our homelands is to keep ever warm that spirit which alone can bring to fruition the aspirations so beautifully and yet so simply expressed in the Declaration of the Opportunities for Children included by unanimous vote in the Final Act of the Congress. We shall have to use all our knowledge, all our resources of mind and body and will, to press forward toward these objectives in a time when war threatens everywhere to destroy all the simple and good things which we in past years have too much taken for granted. Yet if we do not so press forward, even under the pressures and anxieties of war, we shall fail our children and surrender the future to the forces of darkness.

Besides its spiritual strength and unity, the

Congress is notable because its deliberations have been conducted under the inspiration of a steadily developing concept of inter-American community of interest, a concept which is taking form in official conventions, agreements, and resolutions adopted by conferences of authorized representatives of the American States. This concept is not new, but is an expression of the aspirations of the long line of Americans of Latin and Anglo-Saxon origin who saw clearly the necessity for cultural as well as political and economic relationships among the peoples of the New World. Thus inter-American work in behalf of children finds its foundation in the mutuality of interest of free nations, having a common stake in a world order based upon the principles of the Atlantic Charter, an order in which the promotion of the happiness and welfare of men and women and little children will be the central aim of all political and social institutions and arrangements.

Latin Americans See Our Musical Life

VANETT LAWLER

Associate Executive Secretary, Music Educators National Conference

MUSIC, an important factor in effecting hemispheric unity and sympathy, has had a significant role in our cultural exchange with the other American Republics. Alert to the expanding program of inter-American relations, the Music Educators National Conference, in cooperation with the Music Teachers National Association and the National Association of Schools of Music, more than two years ago adopted as its slogan "American Unity through Music," of which "Music for Uniting the Americas" has been an integral part.

As the professional organization of teachers of music in the schools, colleges, and universities, the M. E. N. C. (which is the Department of Music of the National Education Association) and its cooperating organizations were logically the groups

through which this important activity could be fostered. The music program in the schools in the United States and in the Republics to the south furnishes an ideal medium through which the peoples of all the American Republics may become better acquainted with each other.

The Yale Glee Club, which gave concerts in several South American Republics in the summer of 1941, reached scores of music lovers, and according to South American press notices, was received most enthusiastically. Theirs was a most successful project from an artistic as well as from a social and educational point of view.¹

¹ It is hoped that an early issue of the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union will contain an article on the tour of the Yale Glee Club in South America.

Following the suggestions of many persons interested in furthering cultural relations, the Music Division of the Pan American Union was able to sponsor a visit to South America in the summer of 1941 by two outstanding music educators, Louis Woodson Curtis, Director of Music in the Los Angeles Public Schools, and John W. Beattie, Dean of the School of Music of Northwestern University. Mr. Curtis and Mr. Beattie visited conservatories, universities, public schools, libraries, radio stations, theaters, and publishing houses and conferred with composers, conductors, and government officials in Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, Chile, Brazil, Argentina and Uruguay in an effort to glean certain facts and information about music education procedures and to meet persons responsible for the music education programs in some of the other American Republics.

As a result of the reports of Mr. Curtis and Mr. Beattie and many others who had visited the other American Republics,² persons interested in cultural relations were convinced that unity would be greatly stimulated if arrangements could be made to invite a number of distinguished musicians from Central and South America to attend the M. E. N. C. biennial convention in Milwaukee. It was realized that in this manner notable musicians from the other American Republics would see at first hand the "mechanics" of the music education field as well as have an opportunity to observe the many facets of our professional organization. Through the Rockefeller Foundation, funds were placed at the disposal of the Pan American Union, making possible invitations to the following well-known musicians: Antonio Sá Pereira, Director of the

National School of Music, University of Brazil, Rio de Janeiro; Domingo Santa Cruz, Dean of the School of Fine Arts, University of Chile, Santiago; Luis Sandi, Director of the Music Section, Department of Fine Arts, Mexico City; José Castañeda, music critic, *El Liberal Progresista*, Guatemala City; and Dr. Esther Neira de Calvo, a well-known Panamanian educator. Fortunately, Francisco Mignone, an eminent Brazilian composer and conductor, and his wife, Liddy Mignone, also a well-known musician, were already in the United States as guests of the State Department. Arrangements were made by that Department whereby the M. E. N. C. convention was included in Mr. Mignone's itinerary, and Mrs. Mignone received an appointment to attend the convention as official representative of the Ministry of Education in Rio de Janeiro. Another guest of the Pan American Union at Milwaukee was Juan Bautista Plaza, Professor of Music at the National Conservatory, Caracas, Venezuela. Filomena de Salas, Secretary of the Department of Fine Arts of the University of Chile, who has been in the United States since December, was also a member of the South American contingent at Milwaukee.

The convention provided the guests with an opportunity to see a cross-section of music education in the schools, in which some 45,000 persons are engaged in the United States. Special schedules were prepared for the visitors. They saw festivals in which more than 2,000 students participated in a single event. They heard some of the most experienced and accomplished high school bands, orchestras and choruses from schools throughout the country, including a college choir festival in which sixteen colleges and universities were represented.

The guests' attention was directed es-

² Among those having official backing were William Berrien, Carleton Sprague Smith, Aaron Copland, the Wind Instrument Quartet, and the American Ballet.



pecially to the more than fifty "clinics", "workshops", and school music problem sessions in which the techniques and procedures of music education were discussed and demonstrated not only by leaders actively engaged in the field of music education, but also by specialists from the professional field and from the field of general education who had been invited to participate and give counsel and advice. The functional role of music in our national effort was evident throughout the convention.

Particularly significant was the fact that arrangements were made for the guests to participate in the program. Their presence at the M. E. N. C. biennial meeting inspired a special short-wave inter-American broadcast sent from Milwaukee to Latin America by the National Broad-

casting Company. For this program William Berrin, who has been closely identified with inter-American relations in the field of music, was commentator, and Charles Seeger, Chief of the Music Division of the Pan American Union, introduced the visitors, who were platform guests of President Fowler Smith. During the program the Lane Technical High School Orchestra of Chicago and the Elkhart High School Band of Elkhart, Indiana, played under the baton of Francisco Mignone, who said: "Among my most pleasant experiences in the United States are those which have given me the privilege of conducting some of your school groups." Greetings on behalf of the visitors were extended by Domingo Santa Cruz, and to the audience in the Milwaukee Auditorium came from Rio de

MUSICIANS OF THE AMERICAS

Members of the National Board of Directors of the Music Educators National Conference and their guests from Brazil, Chile, Guatemala, Mexico, Panama, and Venezuela at the convention held in Milwaukee March 27-April 4, 1942.



were held by the visitors, who evaluated in terms of their own experiences and musicianship all they saw and heard. Many interesting and valuable contributions were received from them, and on the final day of the convention, Domingo Santa Cruz represented the group on a panel discussion, "The Status of the Educational Program in Relation to the National Effort."

The officials of the M. E. N. C. were honored to have such distinguished and sympathetic visitors, and it is noteworthy that the Editorial Board of the *Music Educators Journal* recommended to the Executive Committee that Antonio Sá Pereira and Domingo Santa Cruz be appointed editorial associates of the *Journal*. The results of this working relationship will be far-reaching.

If the American way of life, about which we hear so much, is to be fully understood, it must be seen and lived in many places in our United States. Following the convention in Milwaukee, itineraries were arranged for the visitors in accordance with their specific interests and wishes. Messrs. Sá Pereira, Sandi and Plaza spent a week or more visiting schools, conservatories, museums, etc., in Des Moines; Kansas City; Joliet, Illinois; and Chicago. Mr. and Mrs. Mignone, Domingo Santa Cruz and Mrs. Salas spent some time in Chicago and Evanston, Illinois, where they were guests of Northwestern University and had an oppor-

Janeiro the voice of Heitor Villa-Lobos, speaking on behalf of the other American Republics.

The Columbia School of the Air of the Americas broadcast, which emanated from Milwaukee as a general session of the Conference, emphasized Latin American folk music. In this connection Olga Coelho, Brazilian soprano, sang Mignone's *Lundu*, which was later played by the Lane Technical High School Orchestra under the composer's baton.

The social events of the week provided ideal opportunities for the music educators to become acquainted personally with their guests, and post-convention reports from the visitors indicated that some interesting and enduring friendships were made.

Daily conferences among themselves

tunity to become acquainted with some of the professional conductors in the Middle West. On a previous trip to the Middle West in January, Mrs. Salas gave lectures on Chilean music and art at music club meetings and in several colleges and universities, including Northwestern and Michigan.

All of the visitors spent some time in Cleveland and its environs visiting schools, museums, and conservatories. Mr. Santa Cruz was especially interested in the Chilean art exhibit at the Toledo Museum of Art. Mr. and Mrs. Mignone, Mr. Sá Pereira and Mr. Plaza spent several days at the Eastman School of Music in Rochester. The visit of the two latter was timed to coincide with the American Music Festival at the Eastman School of Music. Boston and its well-known conservatories, art institutes and symphony were enjoyed by Mr. and Mrs. Mignone and Mr. Sá Pereira.

Although the values that the guests derived from these first-hand inspections of many of our communities were numerous and varied, quite as important is the fact that their visits were exceedingly helpful to the communities whose guests they were. In other words, their visits were actual exemplifications of "Music for Uniting the Americas."

New York and Washington have been the headquarters for all of the guests. As the center of music life in the United States, New York provided a program of special interest to them. Mention should be made here of the lasting impression Francisco Mignone made both as conductor and composer when the National Broadcasting Company Orchestra played under his baton recently. In the national capital the visitors were welcomed at their own headquarters, the Pan American Union, where Mr. Mignone participated in the Pan American Day program on

April 14 and where, on the fifth of May, an important Mexican holiday, Mr. Sandi gave a most interesting lecture on Mexican music.

There is every reason to believe that cultural relations have been advanced and that those responsible may feel rewarded by the results of the visits of these friends from the other American Republics. It is important, of course, that we know the music and art from our colleagues in the south and *vice versa*. More important, however, is the opportunity to meet and know the men and women who are responsible for the music and art of the other Republics. And in this connection, a most significant factor needs comment. Encouragement should be given, and ways and means should be found, to provide our friends with the opportunity to be with each other. Through the cooperation of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, Mr. Santa Cruz will return to Chile via Mexico and the east coast of South America. The value of contacts among the Republics to the south was outlined in an article, *On Hemispherical Unity*, by Domingo Santa Cruz in the current issue of the *Music Educators Journal*:

I think the founding in each American republic of new associations similar to the Music Educators National Conference would be of tremendous significance and would make possible the real union of all the Americas. Of course, in the beginning we could not assemble as many members as you have here, and therefore, we should have to start not only with all who are working in music education, but with those who are engaged in commercial activities concerning music, as well. We could then study common methods and help each other obtain the necessary equipment such as books, instruments, photographic materials, and so on. No one of these suggestions is impossible, and I think that the work of the Conference will have many repercussions beyond the Rio Grande. . . . It has been a great pleasure thus to plan together and to discuss with freedom Latin American problems as a whole. It is interesting to observe that we

[Latin American musicians] had to come to this country before we could meet on common ground, because, contrary to the general conception, we in South America do not have such opportunities, due to the vast distances which separate us. This is one of the most useful results of the Music Educators Biennial Conference in Milwaukee and will have far-reaching consequences in the future for all of us.

That we in the United States gained enormously from the contacts with the visitors there is no doubt. We have reason to believe that they share our enthusiasm and satisfaction as reflected in an article, entitled *America's Musical Mobilization*, just received from Mr. Sá Pereira. He says

in effect that specialists in the military field come to the United States from Central and South America and return to their homelands impressed with our efficient plans for mobilization. Our friends who represented the music life of the other Republics have returned to their homes, convinced that our cultural life and interests are receiving earnest attention in this trying time, and that we are enjoying the new experience of sharing our culture with them, and likewise, the opportunities to become more intimately acquainted with their culture. In short, America has mobilized its musical life.

Visit of the President of Peru to Washington

On the afternoon of May 7, 1942, President Manuel Prado of Peru arrived by plane at Bolling Field, Washington, thus completing the first step of a two-weeks journey that took him not only to the capital but also to a number of educational and industrial centers in the eastern part of the United States. The visit of President Prado, a staunch advocate of hemispheric solidarity, was made at the invitation of President Roosevelt, who remarked: "I am particularly happy to welcome His Excellency, the President of Peru, to the United States and to Washington. This unprecedented visit of the Chief Executive of Peru during his active incumbency in that high office is a concrete indication of the strong bonds which today exist between Peru and the United States. President Prado's visit is, I believe,

a splendid example of the friendly and cooperative relationships between the American republics, which are determined to preserve freedom and democracy in the Americas."

President Roosevelt, accompanied by the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Attorney General, the Secretaries of Commerce and Labor, the Army Chief of Staff, and numerous other high governmental, Army, and Navy officials, greeted President Prado on his arrival at the airfield. In recognition of the distinguished visitor's high rank, full military honors were accorded him. A guard of honor, composed of soldiers, sailors, and marines, stood at attention at Bolling Field; three 21-gun salutes were fired; the several service bands played; army planes dipped in

salute; and the open car in which the Chief Executives of the two countries rode to the White House was escorted by United States Army scout and reconnaissance cars filled with troops.

Accompanying President Prado on his tour was the following party: Their Excellencies Dr. Francisco Tudela and Dr. Víctor Andrés Belaúnde, Ambassadors; the Hon. Roberto MacLean Estenós and the Hon. Carlos Holguín de Lavalle, Ministers; Señor Gonzalo N. de Arámburu, Director of Protocol of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of Peru; Dr. Pedro Bustamante, Presidential Secretary; General of Aviation Fernando Melgar, Military Aide; Captain José R. Alzamora, Naval Aide; Colonel José M. Tamayo, Military Aide; and the Hon. R. Henry Norweb, American Ambassador to Peru.

A busy round of official entertainment, tours of inspection, and sightseeing began almost immediately upon the President's arrival. For his first night in Washington he was a guest at the White House, and the President entertained at a state dinner in his honor. The next day he moved to the nearby Blair House, one of Washington's dignified old colonial mansions, recently purchased by the United States Government to serve as a guest house for distinguished visitors.

During the next few days President Prado visited the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier at Arlington, and Mount Vernon, and was guest of honor at several luncheons, dinners, and receptions given by officials of high rank. On Saturday, May 9, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union held a special session in Dr. Prado's honor. Speaking on behalf of all the Board members, the Chairman, the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States,

addressed the Peruvian President in these words:

MR. PRESIDENT:

I have been entrusted by my colleagues of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union with the delightful duty of extending to Your Excellency a warm welcome on behalf of the Board. We are honored by your gracious presence at this special session.

Long before you were called to the high office that you now occupy, your distinguished services to the people of Peru were well known to all of us. The fact that you have been called to preside over the destinies of your great country is a fitting climax to a career dedicated to the welfare of your people.

I recall, as do a number of my colleagues here present, the charming hospitality which the delegation of Peru, of which you were a distinguished member, extended to us during the sessions of the momentous Conference of 1938. We remember with much pleasure the opportunity of working with you in the cause which we all have so much at heart.

That, as we all know, was in keeping with a tradition of which Peru can justly be proud. At the successive Pan American Conferences your country has played an important part in supporting every plan for closer cooperation between the nations of this Continent and has been in the forefront in giving effect to the conventions signed and resolutions adopted by these Conferences. At the recent Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics held at Rio de Janeiro your representative supported every measure looking toward Pan American unity. During this critical period in the history of the American Republics, your administration has been contributing in the fullest measure to the unity of purpose and unity of policy of the American Republics.

Today, as never before, the American nations must stand shoulder to shoulder with each other and with all freedom-loving nations of the world in the great struggle upon which we are all engaged. Upon the outcome of that struggle will depend the future of man for generations to come.

Our personal welcome to you, Mr. President, is thus combined with a deep sense of appreciation, felt by all of us, for the important part which you and your country have been and are playing in furthering the cause of Pan American solidarity and, therefore, the cause of freedom and of humanity.



Washington Star staff photo

PRESIDENT ROOSEVELT WELCOMES PRESIDENT PRADO AT BOLLING FIELD

At the left stands the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, and in the center President Roosevelt's naval aide.

The President of Peru responded to the Governing Board's welcome as follows:

MR. CHAIRMAN OF THE GOVERNING BOARD:

I thank you for your gracious opinions concerning the contribution of my country to the cause of America and its irrevocable pledge of collaboration in defense of democracy, as well as for your kind words about my public life, which at all times has been unreservedly at the service of my country and of the highest interests of the Continent.

In connection with your cordial reference to the Eighth International Conference of American States at Lima in 1938, I cannot fail to recall the admirable and fruitful part that you played at that meeting and your noble consecration to the ideals of continental union and peace.

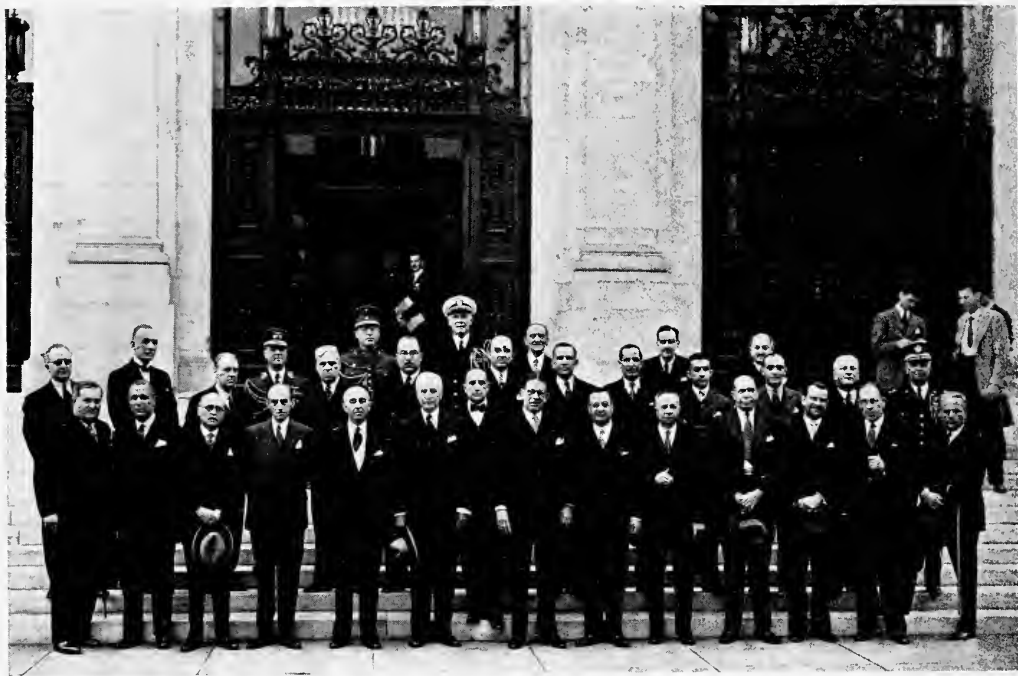
GENTLEMEN:

It is a singular distinction that you confer upon me in this ceremony at the Pan American Union, where, together with their flags, the hearts and wills of all the republics of this hemisphere are intertwined.

Our struggles for independence were the brilliant beginning of Pan Americanism, for in heroic union our countries fought for the common ideal of liberty.

Peru, a center of government in the colonial period, was at that time the highest expression of continental solidarity, because men from every latitude flocked there, and with their heroic and unselfish aid, we achieved at Junín and Ayacucho the independence of the new South American Republics.

When years later a new threat loomed off the coasts of the southern Pacific, my country entered into an alliance with Bolivia, Chile, and Ecuador, under the leadership of the then President of Peru, General Prado, and the battle fought in the Peruvian port of Callao on May 2, 1866, announced to the world with the thunder of its cannon that there was no room on American soil for new pretensions of conquest. Thus Peru is proud of having been awake to all that concerned the independence of the American countries and of having many times taken the initiative in movements of continental solidarity.



THE PRESIDENT OF PERU WITH THE GOVERNING BOARD OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

The Americanist spirit continued to take root in the consciousness of our peoples, constantly alert to the defense of their common interests, as was eloquently proved over a period of more than a century by their standing together in the face of all attempts at aggression against the liberty of the New World nations.

To our generation has fallen the lot of living under the apprehensions and fears brought on by the course of events leading to the present world-shaking tragedy.

We have witnessed the failure of the League of Nations; the mutilation of China; conquest to further renewed imperialistic expansions; and the manner in which force, threatening all the traditions of jurisprudence and human brotherhood, has again and again disregarded the solemnity of treaties, honor, and the faith of the pledged word. America cannot remain indifferent while it perceives the continuance of this cataclysm, unprecedented in the history of mankind.

The foresight of our continent has been reaffirmed in successive conferences during recent years. In all these conferences the expression of Pan Americanism has been strengthened; the

hearts of the people in all the countries of the hemisphere have been intimately united; an unshakable unity of thought and action has been maintained; and now as the grave responsibility of this historic moment is being faced, we are fortified by the firm hope that, united in this crucial hour, we shall share at a not too distant day the well-being of the New World, purged of its errors by our common efforts, wherein all countries, large or small, will be respected, wherein all nations will be certain of security, and where every individual will enjoy the inalienable guarantees of human dignity and, as the highest reward of his existence, can boast the supreme right to be free. Let us raise our spirits and our hearts in the conviction that the advent of this better world must be in great part the result of America's vigilance, and let us reinforce our optimism with the thought that, while on other continents attempts are made to impose the language of force, in ours no language but that of justice and reason is recognized or accepted.

Until now plans for a European union have always been blocked by periodic crises that have plunged old Europe into aggressive conflicts of

opposing and unyielding ethnic, economic and historic interests. The obstacle to Asiatic unification has been that this ancient portion of the earth is unacquainted with the virtues of good will and the rule of a conquering theism has prevailed therein. In Africa the lack of advanced political and cultural organisms and the facility with which the ports of that Continent have always been opened to colonizing expansion have conspired against a possible union. On the other hand, our Continent and our races may well be proud that Pan Americanism represents with increasing power, by the free will of all the American peoples, a solid political and economic block which is the vigorous expression of our common hopes and interests and which offers incalculable prospects for the future.

Let us cast our eyes toward the future of the New World. We are of necessity united today in danger, as we were yesterday in glory, and as we shall be tomorrow in a state of general well-being. Let us prepare the work of reconstruction that must follow the hecatomb, completely extinguishing the spirit of violence and of conquest that seeks to dominate the world. America is the land of promise for humanity. Men, races, nations live here under the shelter of Democracy. Our civilization has its origin in the Gospel, whose light came to us with the caravels of Columbus and was strengthened by the influence of the Renaissance. Our economic systems and our needs complement each other. We all love liberty. And if during these moments of danger we share the same anxiety, it is because all Americans, North, Central, and South, desire a definite, honorable, and worthy peace, a peace in which there shall be neither oppressor nor oppressed, in which the dictates of violence and hate shall not prevail, in which all ideologies of force and despotism shall be outlawed, and in which the equilibrium of the world shall be reestablished on immovable, just, and humane foundations.

After the Governing Board had adjourned and President Prado's health had been drunk by the members, he spoke briefly at the closing session of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress, receiving an ovation from the delegates.

The day closed with a splendid dinner and reception tendered by His Excellency the Ambassador of Peru, Señor don Manuel Freyre y Santander, at the Embassy.

On Monday, May 11, President Prado paid a visit to the United States capitol, where he was invited to address the Senate and the House of Representatives. His remarks were as follows:

GENTLEMEN:

It is indeed a high honor that the Congress of the United States, worthy guardian of the traditions of Freedom, Law, and Justice of this great American nation and faithful interpreter of its will throughout its existence, grants to me today. I acknowledge and gratefully accept it in the name of the Peruvian people.

Gentlemen, I bring you a message from my country, uttered in the solemn accent of all the collective expressions that define the thoughts and attitudes of nations, when in epochal moments of their history, vital interests of humanity are found to be at stake, imperatively claiming from them the active participation which it is their duty to give in order to mark the great orientations of history.

It has fallen to our lot to live in the most tragic and somber hour since man began his arduous ascent on the age-long ladder of progress; at no other time has the struggle been so extensive between the forces representing a past of enslaving despotism and a future holding high the banners of Democracy, whereon we find inscribed in shining characters the principle of equality among men and nations.

Peru, a country that came to independence proclaiming, as did all the American nations, its republican convictions, a country that throughout its history has endeavored to pay constant homage to the inherent right of all nations to determine their own destinies and to regulate their relationships on the basis of mutual respect, could not for a single instant hesitate in adopting a definite and resolute position in the face of the flood of forces that try to drown in blood every sentiment of freedom and to perpetuate in all the world a system of racial hegemony that in everyone's interest must be abolished wherever it is found.

America, the refuge of liberty and democracy, is an immovable bulwark against which will be shattered any attempt to nullify the historical efforts and experiences carried out under our founding institutions for more than a century.

In order that the American Continent may fulfill its mission as defender of human culture and of the eternal values of the spirit, it was

necessary that the nations composing it, rising above all selfish interest, should form a firm and united front, their watchword allegiance to the same ideal and the same indestructible faith in the conquest of a common destiny.

And thus at this moment, which will mark an epoch in the history of the Continent, a new economic and social policy is being crystallized, which will guide relations among the nations of this Hemisphere in accordance with an eminently humane and constructive concept—a solid guarantee of the invincibility of its democratic institutions and the maintenance of its independence.

We must be frank enough to admit that events have caught us by surprise and that they have had an enlightening effect, compelling us to make important rectifications without delay and to organize ourselves into one great unit, endowed with all the elements necessary to the full and harmonious development of our life and our culture.

We are thus faced with the urgent task of rapidly organizing the exploitation of our natural resources within a vast integrated plan of research, inventory, and constructive preparation, including communications and transport, so that we may immediately and efficiently set in motion the extensive and complex mechanism of our production of raw materials and their industrial processing, in order to satisfy the needs of our people and the enormous and urgent demands of the war.

And I have the immense satisfaction of announcing, gentlemen, that the cooperation of Peru is destined to be a factor of real importance in the solution of the common problems of continental defense, since it offers without reservations the great resources of its rich virgin forests, its majestic mountain ranges with their prodigious mineral and hydroelectric wealth, its fertile valleys, its copious rivers, its mild climate, and the proverbial calm of the ocean alongs its shores—in short, the resources of all this magnificent setting, wherein marvellous civilizations now lost in the mists of the past once flourished, and wherein today a people, whose blood unites the virtues of the native and the Spanish races, is engaged in meeting the demands of the hour with indomitable decision and absolute faith in the triumph of the principles that inspire the great cause of democracy.

It is a noble task, gentlemen, that the nations of America are performing in obedience to the mandate of the Founding Fathers who, like a brilliant constellation, shine everlastingly in

the skies of the New World and whose august memory I wish to evoke in these precincts of Justice and of Law, as a symbol of our republican creed.

The great democracy of the United States, in whose hands God has placed today the destinies of mankind, is fulfilling that historic mission, as the brain, heart, and motor nerves of the titanic struggle for freedom which is using the whole world for its stage. To the service of that struggle the United States is contributing in their entirety the virtues of its people and its formidable capacity for organization, discipline, and toil, which have permitted it to assure in a brief time the creation of an unsurpassed military might, not only for its own direct use but for a gigantic arsenal to supply all the democracies of the world. The vigorous and effective cooperation of the United States reaches every corner where the battle is being waged for democracy, equality, justice, and right; that is to say, for the survival of sovereign nations and free men.

In the name of Peru, whose destinies I have the honor of guiding, I reiterate in this supreme moment our spontaneous adherence to the international policy of President Roosevelt, the highest incarnation of the democratic ideal, and I reaffirm my unfaltering faith that, however strong the forces of oppression and despotism and however painful the sacrifices imposed upon the nations fighting for the rights of civilization, they will be vanquished and the sun of liberty will once again shine for all men of good will.

Gentlemen, as long as I live, I shall always remember these great moments and the tribute that you have generously paid me. We share the same beliefs and the same objectives and we have met today, in this temple of democracy, to rededicate ourselves and to renew before the guiding spirits of the Founding Fathers our solemn vow to preserve intact the patrimony of freedom that they created with their own lives. We have received this patrimony as a sacred heritage which, adorned and augmented, we must transmit to posterity.

The hopes of the world are now centered upon this Continent, the favorite home of liberty. And America, gentlemen, is demonstrating with extraordinary eloquence that, as might be expected of its honorable traditions, it is worthy of the confidence of mankind and that it knows how to obey faithfully the mandate of history—a destiny of struggles crowned with glory.

The supreme objective of the present hour is to win. The goal to be reached is victory. In

order to achieve it we must coordinate with the highest precision all, absolutely all, our economic and social activities so that the mobilization of the material and spiritual resources of each country will respond with accuracy and maximum efficiency to the execution of the plans for action and for reciprocal collaboration among all those nations which in the defense of democracy find themselves involved in this painful tragedy.

But at the same time it is indispensable that the men who are responsible for guiding the destiny of nations, looking toward the future beyond the terrible drama of the war, should wrest from the very depths of these events the great and fundamental orientations of the future. It is necessary that out of the chaos of the world today there shall rise an invincible will to prevent present or future generations from being plunged again into a similar catastrophe. The present moment imposes upon us the duty of taking action not only in obedience to the instinct of self-preservation in the face of danger, but also of formulating a declaration of faith in the eternal principles of Christianity, the inexhaustible source of standards of equality and lofty ethics to govern life, promote progress, and assure the welfare of all human beings. If the war is followed by disagreement, misery, and confusion, then the blood, sweat and tears of these tragic days will have been in vain. Only the rule of Justice, the supreme law governing the relations of men and of nations, will make it possible to overcome the disquieting uncertainty of the post-war period.

In view of the thirst for justice and the need that humanity feels for reparation, it is our unavoidable duty to open the wide roads that will carry us to the broadest realization of the common ideals of the democratic creed whose basic principles are emblazoned on the flags of all the nations of the Continent: rehabilitation of the rights of man, of the family, of free civilized institutions and of nationalities, as expressions of historic realities which, although endowing nations with special characteristics, engender no antagonisms between them but rather enrich and accelerate their evolution within a constructive world cooperation. This is the only means of laying the foundations for a lasting peace in which man and society may attain the fulness of their harmonious development and happiness.

From Washington, the Peruvian President's itinerary led to Detroit, where he

visited the Ford Willow Run and River Rouge Plants and the Chrysler Tank Arsenal; to Buffalo, where he saw the Curtiss-Wright airplane plants and Niagara Falls; to Boston (his son is a student at Harvard); and finally to New York, where he spent several days, during which he made a tour of the United States Military Academy at West Point and was guest of honor at many festivities, including a luncheon given by Mayor La Guardia at the airport bearing his name. A great dinner at the Waldorf-Astoria sponsored by the Pan American Society and the Peruvian-American Association and attended by a thousand persons climaxed his stay in New York. Both Columbia and Fordham Universities welcomed the distinguished guest and conferred upon him the honorary degree of LL. D.

Dr. Prado, who has had a brilliant career as a soldier, educator, editor, and statesman, was the first South American president to visit the United States while in office. Since his inauguration in December 1939, he has consistently supported a policy of inter-American concord and solidarity. His visit, reflecting both his cooperative international spirit and his own personal talents and achievements, may certainly be regarded as another link uniting Peru and the United States in their common resolve to strive, together with the other nations of the Western Hemisphere, for the preservation of the American way of life.

After official visits to Panama, Cuba, Venezuela and Colombia, in all of which countries he was greeted with expressions of respect and good will, President Prado returned to Lima, where his compatriots welcomed home the leader and gracious gentleman who had done them honor abroad.

Sculpture of the Western Hemisphere

AN Exhibition of Contemporary Sculpture of the Western Hemisphere opened at the Corcoran Gallery of Art in Washington, D. C., on May 16, 1942.

To Mr. Thomas J. Watson, President of the International Business Machines Corporation, goes the credit both for having originated the idea of such an exhibition and for having made it a reality by assembling the hundred works representing the Latin American countries, the Dominion of Canada, and the United States and its possessions. In a foreword to the Exhibition catalogue, Mr. Watson wrote as follows:

The American nations are joined today in a common cause. Unparalleled efforts and sacrifices are being made by their peoples to protect all the fine things which have been developed in our hemisphere.

The records left by potter and carver tell us of

the ancient past. Ceramist and sculptor of today will report in the future; but they also speak now of contemporary times and ways of life.

This collection has been assembled in order to give our peoples an opportunity to see what is being done by the sculptors of all the countries of the Western Hemisphere.

We gratefully acknowledge the assistance rendered us by government officials, museum directors, art authorities, and others who have collaborated in this work.

After the showing in Washington, the exhibit will make a tour of art museums throughout the hemisphere.

The BULLETIN is pleased to publish photographs of a few of the works composing this unique exhibition. A regrettable lack of space prohibits publication of photographs of works representing all countries of the hemisphere, but those shown are indicative of the skill, originality, and sensitive treatment evident in all.



All photographs courtesy of Corcoran Gallery of Art

"PARK BENCH" (WOOD), BY AGUSTIN RIGANELLI OF ARGENTINA



"ORULA" (MAHOGANY), BY TEODORO
RAMOS BLANCO OF CUBA



"CHOLITA" (BRONZE), BY RAÚL PRO
OF PERU



"CHAMACOCO INDIAN" (BRONZE), BY
VICENTE POLLAROLO OF PARAGUAY



"HEAD OF INDIAN" (STONE), BY FRAN-
CISCO ZÚÑIGA OF COSTA RICA



"WOMAN AND CHILD" (MAHOGANY),
BY AMADOR LIRA OF NICARAGUA



"LA MINERA" (WOOD), BY RODRIGO
ARENAS BETANCOURT OF COLOMBIA



"THE DRUMMER" (MAHOGANY), BY
ANDRÉ LAFONTANT OF HAITI



"RUSTIC WOMAN" (BRONZE), BY
GABRIEL ÓSCAR BRACHO OF VENE-
ZUELA



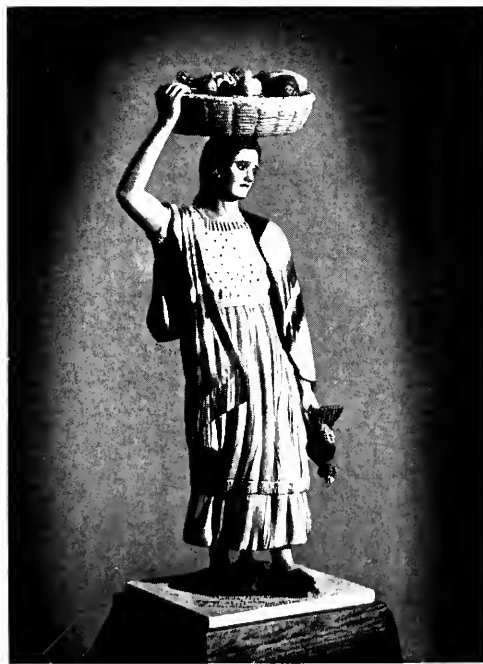
"ANCHIETA AND CHILD" (WOOD), BY
RICARDO CIPICCHIA OF BRAZIL



"OLD ARTIGAS" (BRONZE), BY JOSÉ LUIS
ZORRILLA DE SAN MARTÍN OF
URUGUAY



"OUTLAW" (EBONY), BY JOE TAYLOR
OF OKLAHOMA



"PEASANT GIRL OF CUSCATLECA"
(POLYCHROME), BY NAPOLEÓN NÓ-
CHEZ AVEDAÑO OF EL SALVADOR

Portrait Sculptures by Mariña Núñez Del Prado



Photograph by Underwood and Underwood

The Bolivian sculptor whose Indian heads and groups in wood and other media attracted much favorable comment when exhibited in various cities of the United States last year (see BULLETIN for July 1941) has continued her success with fifteen portrait heads shown at the National Museum in Washington during May. Her portraits of men are especially successful because of their strength and plastic quality; the modeling is bold but subtle. Above, the Hon. Paul V. McNutt, Administrator, Federal Security Agency; on opposite page, above, Señorita Núñez del Prado with her head of Mrs. Thomas Burke and the sitter; below, left, the Hon. Henry A. Wallace, Vice President of the United States; right, the Hon. Harlan F. Stone, Chief Justice. *The Washington Post* said: "Señorita Núñez del Prado is both clever and brilliant in her achievement. Not only does she get an excellent likeness, but she adds the special attainment of a remarkable presentation of the character of the sitter, expressed in a distinctive style. The artist strives for a sensitive rendition of the mouth, which is more nearly an expression of the character in sculpture than the eyes, which cannot be as well made expressive in this form of art as in painting."



Glimpses of Colombia

EMMA CECILIA NARANJO

I SHALL always remember with what emotion I first saw the tropical shores of Colombia on an unforgettable Friday at the crack of dawn! These were the same loved shores that my parents had left twenty-three years ago on a consular mission to the United States, the home of their American-born children.

For twenty-one years I had been acquainting myself with Colombian culture, mingling with South American students, and attending lectures, but up to that time I had never set foot on Colombia's soil. My mind was constantly filled with unanswered questions about Colombian civilization, climate, social conditions, customs, and ordinary everyday life. I wanted to compare the two countries from an American viewpoint. I was interested in my own reactions toward Colombia and fascinated at the prospect of having a new world open to me. Combined with all these feelings was the joyous expectancy of meeting legions of relatives still unknown.

Looking over the deck rail at this first stretch of Colombian land, I was filled with the excitement of new adventure.

Colombia is a land of picturesque contrasts: majestic mountains and arid plains; fertile valleys and barren waste lands; intense tropical heat and zero weather; colonial civilizations and model modern suburbs. Charming to the foreigner is the fact that each section of Colombia has its own history, individual customs, music, and dialect. The variety of atmosphere in Colombia dispels monotony. If one is searching for historical color, one goes to romantic Cartagena, un-

changed in large part since the days of the French and English buccaneers; for gaiety and sparkle. to Barranquilla, where American influence predominates; for a touch of our Old West, to Cali with its beautiful scenery and spacious haciendas; and for the busy life of a metropolis, to Bogotá.

I was a little doubtful about a pleasant stay in Colombia, for after all, my mother had not returned to her native land for twenty-three years, and the country was unknown to me. Surely in this short lifetime, drastic changes would have occurred in social circles—enough to make us total strangers. My fears soon vanished. At the pier, at the airfield, in fact anywhere we went, we were greeted by small armies of people all rushing at us with open arms and flowers. Relatives, childhood friends, their wives, husbands, sons, daughters, and nearest kin were all present to receive us. Friendship is friendship in Colombia, and a score of years does not break the strong bonds that exist. No one is ever alone in Colombia!

Of the four important Colombian cities that I visited, Barranquilla was our first stop. This city leaves a very favorable impression with the foreigner. It boasts one of the best hotels in South America, the Hotel del Prado, which is constantly filled with American tourists who take delight in its attractive swimming pool and cocktail bar. El Prado is Barranquilla's most modern residential section, and the Barranquilleros feel very proud of the delightful homes found there. It is amazing to learn how fast Barranquilla



A BUSINESS STREET, BARRANQUILLA

An important shipping, airline and industrial center, Barranquilla is advancing rapidly.

has progressed. It has theaters, large department stores, American ice-cream parlors, groceries, and five-and-ten-cent stores, besides many factories. The large American colony there apparently lives very happily, and has spread its gringo influence to such an extent that very often one hears more English than Spanish spoken in a group of people. Social customs have also been influenced by Americans, and today the Barranquillan girls have far more freedom than the rest of their sex in other parts of Colombia.

The climate in the suburb of El Prado is extremely pleasant because of the

breezes blowing from the Magdalena River. Barranquilla is advancing rapidly and should become one of the most modern of the medium-sized South American cities.

The road from Barranquilla to Cartagena is fairly good, and palms, huge cactus plants, banana plantations, and various wild fruit trees are a conspicuous part of the tropical scenery. This interesting trip takes about three and a half hours.

Colombian hospitality showed itself again during our automobile ride. A young Cartagencero shared the passenger car with us and, noting that we were

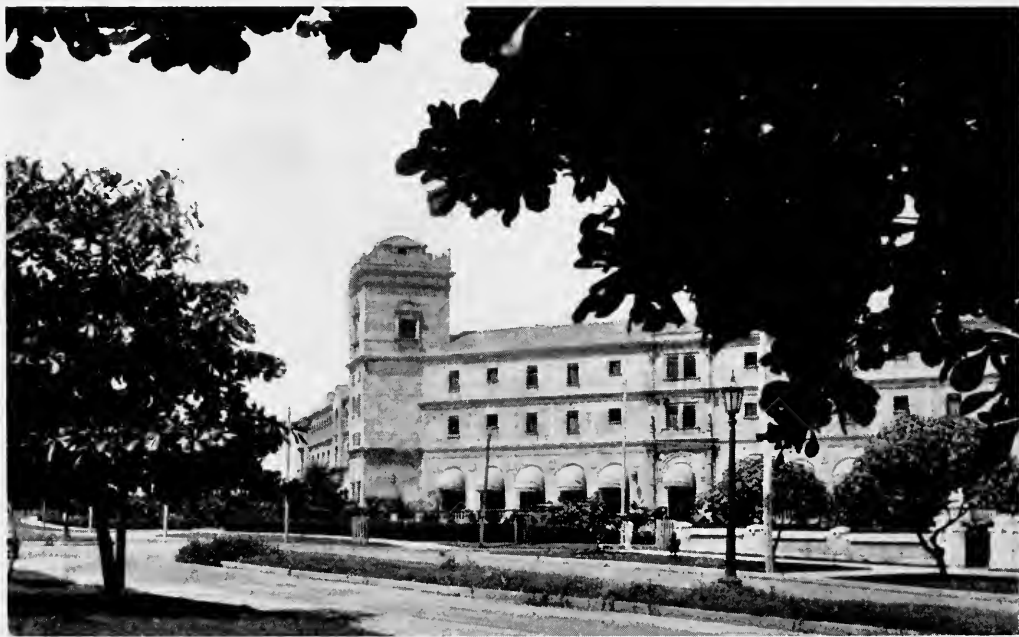
visitors in Colombia, undertook to make us comfortable and happy. When we arrived, it was he who located a hotel for us and went so far as to take our trunks out of the car. That is the way it is in Colombia! There is a strong sense of unity among the Colombians that even embraces the foreigner.

Cartagena is a most fascinating and amazing town. It is like the romantic scenario to some pirate play: fortresses looking out over sparkling waters, palm-lined shores kissed by foam, ancient churches built high above the city, and walls that seem to touch the sky. Slumbering lazily under the tropical sun, this ancient and revered city remains almost intact as when French and English buccaneers plundered its coasts. One is transported from the noisy twentieth century to the quiet of the sixteenth; the atmosphere is charged with mystery, intrigue, romantic

legends, and a kind of suspense. There are stories of gold buried in ancient patios, of families who suddenly become strangely wealthy, of spirits that haunt the corridors of four-hundred-year-old houses.

The walls of Cartagena are famous. Their purpose was to keep out the enemy, and so wide is each one that in places six automobiles could be driven alongside one another. Fortresses, wonderful examples of human ingenuity, are located at strategic points. Most of these have underground passages which seem to go on indefinitely. They are tall and wide at the entrance but as they continue become extremely low and narrow, so much so that one is forced to crawl on hands and knees.

Perhaps the most picturesque touch of all in this walled city is given by the still unpaved colonial squares, bits of old Spain transported to the New World. Sometimes an arch guards the entrance.



HOTEL DEL PRADO, BARRANQUILLA

The wide terrace and galleries of the hotel make it comfortable and charming.



PART OF THE CARTAGENA WALLS

Erected in the 17th century to keep out the buccaneers, the fortifications are massive and well preserved in many sections.

Antiquated coaches stand in line on one side of the square awaiting visitors, ready to take them along the ocean roads. After the streets leave the squares they become narrower and narrower, until sometimes it is almost impossible for an automobile to pass through. Colonial balconies project from houses on either side, and occasionally they are so close to each other that it is possible to hold hands across the thoroughfare.

Cartagena is filled with a strange silence as though this venerable city still were mourning for the ghosts of yesterday. The four-hundred-year-old houses share this weird silence, and every footstep resounds a hundred times. One can easily lose himself in the vast rooms, end-

less corridors, and huge patios. The imagination works nervously in these ancient mansions, where it seems as if one glimpsed fleeting forms and shadows crossing patios or turning corners.

Almost every colonial house is said to be haunted by a ghost. I was told that one was inhabited by an old woman who swept out the large patios in the early hours of the morning.

What is hard not to believe, incredible though they may sound, are the stories about *entierros*. During the time of the Inquisition in colonial days, there were no banks in which to store great fortunes. Therefore the only way to safeguard them was to bury the gold under bricks in the patios or any other convenient place in

the house. Often the owners died, leaving the whereabouts of their wealth unknown. Nothing more was heard about it until poor people suddenly became strangely wealthy. The story goes that eery lights springing from the ground indicated where the treasure was buried, and whoever was fortunate enough to see them became the owner of the hidden fortune. Even today people sometimes find these *entierros* by chance in their own back yards. I have also heard many people talk about spirits that roam houses where gold is buried. They say that these are souls in Purgatory whose mission on earth is to disclose the hiding place of *entierros* so that they may benefit someone! The

truth of these tales may be doubted, but it is fascinating to half believe in them.

There is something about Colombian churches that makes one want to pray fervently—that inspires mysticism. At dawn one can hear the clanging of their colonial bells calling to mass, and at dusk they announce the close of day. One rises and retires to the clang of bells, and their ringing becomes a part of life. Every Colombian will tell you how he loves those bells that he has heard from childhood and that some day will announce his departure to the other world.

In the early morning the old church is filled with shadows. It is still nearly dark inside, but faint beams of light find their way through open windows. Peasant women kneel in prayer, and their *Our Fathers* and *Ave Marias* are heard like the drone of bees. In the dim light of the church, their black-draped forms look phantomlike as they move from one Station of the Cross to the other. The priest chants in low tones and children's voices answer him in song. The light becomes stronger. Now one can clearly see the beautiful holy images, relics of three hundred years or more. Outside a cock crows. It is morning. The church bells clang solemnly.

Cartagena has a good-sized American colony that feels happy and at home there. The modern sections of town and the beautiful country club with its fine golf course give Americans a touch of the United States.

The city is totally different from Barranquilla. While Barranquilla has a gay night life, Cartagena is totally void of all social activities very early in the evening. Even the customs are different in the two cities, young people having far more freedom in the former than in the latter, where they still must cater to colonial customs.



Courtesy of Enrique Naranjo

A COLONIAL MANSION, CARTAGENA

Such vast houses, four centuries old, are the locale for stories of phantoms and buried treasure.



THE PLAZA OF SANTO DOMINGO, CARTAGENA

A colonial atmosphere characterizes the squares and houses with overhanging balconies, whose fascinating details are thrown into relief after dark by the street lighting.

Skipping over to Cali, we find a region that is totally unlike the coast both in topography and in climate. The Department called El Valle del Cauca, whose capital is Cali, is fertile, mountainous, much cooler, and full of nature's glories. The panorama of the Valley from the plane window is a scene that the mind and heart will never forget. It is like the entrance to a lost Paradise. There are miles and miles of plains in every hue of green; a winding river whose banks are shaded by trees of luxuriant foliage; thousands of cattle roaming lazily under a brilliant sun, and purple-tinted mountains half hidden by clouds of gold that frame this unbelievable beauty. All this bright splash of color is like a painting by Van Gogh. At last Cali is seen nestling in the folds of the valley. How bright the red-tiled roofs look!

Commercially Cali is progressing fast. An American can purchase almost any article in Cali that is found in the United

States. Although the city is small, it can boast a fine hotel, excellent theaters, and two or three country clubs. It is framed on all sides by mountains so that the eye can never escape nature's wonders. Within fifteen minutes of Cali's center, one is in open country, and what glorious country it is too! The scenery appears to have been arranged by the artistry of an interior decorator, so perfect is the setting of each field, river, stream, and mountain. However, the best part about it all is that Nature has done her own decorating, since all this beauty is wild and untouched. The haciendas on the outskirts of Cali are all very old, dating back two or three hundred years. The houses are amazing structures with walls so thick that it would seem that not even an earthquake could tear them down. Most of them have connecting chapels that contain beautiful church relics. Usually an hacienda has been in one family for centuries, each generation passing it on

to the next. In the olden days, Colombian families spent their whole lives on these estates, hardly ever leaving them. People were born and died in the same house, and their children and grandchildren after them. It must have been a peaceful and contented life that these people led, surrounded by their faithful slaves. Today descendants of the negroes still manage the haciendas. The historic places are open to the public and people drive in and out of them at will. Hospitality again in Colombia!

A romantic custom in Cali is that of the serenade. When a boy likes a girl, he shows his admiration for her by playing soft music under her window after the last light has been put out. He hires the services of three or four musicians and stands by their side while they play, waiting to see if his lady love shows her head at the window.

I shall never forget the thrill of my first serenade. I was awakened from deep slumber by soft melodious voices and guitar music. In that magical harmony, I found all the vague things I longed for. The night was very still, and the moonlight streamed through the low colonial window. Slowly the last note quivered in the air and faded. What a glorious experience! Next morning I found under the door the card of my serenader.

In Cali, the family is a unit strong as iron. When any member dies, he is mourned by scores of people who wear black for months and even years. One funeral I attended impressed me so much that I found it hard to dismiss it from my mind. It seemed as though the whole city were in mourning for the deceased. The streets were thronged with hundreds of people all following the casket, borne on the shoulders of four men. There



Photograph by Alberto Lenis

PASEO BOLÍVAR, CALI

Cali is a charming and romantic city in the Cauca Valley, one of the most fertile regions in the world.



IN BOGOTÁ

High and cool, the capital of Colombia is a busy city that is constantly being extended through the erection of fine new houses and workers' subdivisions.

must have been at least four thousand people. The casket was carried all through the streets, and the day was marked by a silence like that of our Memorial Day. What a gratifying thought it must be to know that one will be so mourned and accompanied!

A very democratic spirit prevails in Cali. The Governor, the famous poets, and all notables treat everyone as their equal. One drops in to see them without ceremony. I was charmed by the modesty of Cali's famous lyric poet, Ricardo Nieto.

The girls are extremely well dressed and

attractive. Many of them look just like American girls, and have the same independent air and carriage. Today in Colombia it is no longer strange to see girls working. Many are employed in offices, department stores, and hospitals. All that talk about girls talking to their sweethearts through barred windows is stuff and nonsense!

From Cali we flew to Bogotá, Colombia's capital, founded in 1538. It is situated on a plateau high in the Andes, and the climate is delightfully cool all year round. The Bogotanos have no reason to envy any of us Americans. The

well-to-do are very fashionable, and their standard of living very high. Bogotá is a center of culture and has long been called the "Athens of South America."

So there we have four Colombian cities in a nutshell. The country, located in the northwestern part of South America close to the Panama Canal, is the only one in South America having a seacoast on both the Atlantic and the Pacific. It is as large as pre-war Germany, France, and Belgium put together, and has a population of approximately nine million inhabi-

tants, mostly white people, descendants of the Spanish conquerors. Colombia is a republic divided into Departments; its national religion is Roman Catholicism.

The airway systems are excellent, and it takes very little time to travel from one Department to another. The considerable number of cities of moderate size is a notable feature of the distribution of population.

Visit Colombia when you can. You will love it, for it has much to offer in scenery, historical color, hospitality, and charm!



PALACE OF THE INQUISITION, CARTAGENA

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be

When a reference stands by itself in parenthesis, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number (e. g., 2a).

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, "*Boletín Oficial*"; Brazil, "*Diário Oficial*"; Chile, "*Diario Oficial*"; Colombia, "*Diario Oficial*"; Costa Rica, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; Cuba, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; Dominican Republic, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; El Salvador, "*Diario Oficial*"; Ecuador, "*El Registro*"; Guatemala, "*Diario de Centro América*"; Haiti, "*Le Moniteur*"; Honduras, "*La Gaceta*"; Mexico, "*Diario Oficial*"; Nicaragua, "*La Gaceta*"; Panama, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; Paraguay, "*Gaceta Oficial*"; Peru, "*El Peruano*"; Uruguay, "*Diario Oficial*"; and Venezuela, "*Gaceta Oficial*."

compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART IV

ARGENTINA

4k. January 28, 1942. Appointment by the Minister of War of a delegation to represent the army at the Third Argentine Engineering Congress to be held in Córdoba in April 1942 for the purpose of considering problems relating to National Defense. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 2, 1942.)

6. (Correction.) February 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 112,896-595. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 21, 1942.)

7. (Correction.) February 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 112,898-596 calling to service second lieutenants of the classes of 1918 and 1919. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 21, 1942.)

8. February 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 112,897-597 calling to service all non-commissioned officers of the classes of 1918 and 1919. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 23, 1942.)

9. February 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 113,017-26 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the state of war existing between Yugoslavia and Japan. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 19, 1942.)

10. February 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 114,354 advancing the official time one hour during a provisional period from March 1, 1942, to October 14, 1942. (*Boletín Oficial*, February 27, 1942.)

11. March 3, 1942. Presidential Decree prohibiting the manufacture of many rubber products and placing all rubber under government control. Tires to be rationed in the following order of priority: national defense, public service, freight transport, private automobiles. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, March 4, 1942.)

BOLIVIA

2. March 16, 1942. Executive Decree prohibiting the export of rubber without government approval. (*El Diario*, La Paz, March 17, 1942.)

BRAZIL

15g. March 2, 1942. Presidential Decree establishing an air base at Natal, Rio Grande do Norte. (*Diário Oficial*, March 4, 1942.)

19. (Correction. March 11, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4166. (*Diário Oficial*, March 12, 1942.)

23. ———. Decree of the Ministries of Justice and the Treasury prescribing rules and regulations for the fulfillment of Decree-Law No. 4166 (see 19 above and BULLETIN, May 1942.) (*Boletim do Serviço de Informações do Ministério das Relações Exteriores*, No. 191, April 30, 1942.)

24. April 27, 1942. Presidential Decree amending Art. 9 of the Military Service Law by providing that reserve forces remain at the disposition of military orders for an additional three-year period. (*Boletim do Serviço de Informações do Ministério das Relações Exteriores*, No. 191, April 30, 1942.)

25. April 29, 1942. Decree giving Axis nationals 72 hours to file affidavits of their assets with the Ministry of the Treasury in accordance with the Decree of March 12 ordering the retention of 10 to 30 percent of the assets of such nationals (see Brazil 19, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*New York Times*, April 30, 1942.)

26. May 1, 1942. Presidential Order of the Day, exhorting workers to speed up production. (*New York Times*, May 2, 1942.)

CHILE

5. February 26, 1942. Decree issued by the Ministry of Commerce placing the importation of all vital products and raw materials, especially those from the United States, under control of a National Supply Board. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, February 27, 1942.)

6. February 27, 1942. Note sent to the diplomatic representatives of Germany, Italy, and Japan by the Minister of Foreign Affairs protesting against the sinking of Brazilian and Venezuelan vessels. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, February 28, 1942.)

7. March 3, 1942. Decree issued by the Ministry of National Defense providing for the registration of all motor vehicles in accordance with Law No. 7144, December 31, 1941. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, March 4, 1942.)

8. March 14, 1942. Decree issued by the General Subsistence and Price Commissariat (*Comisariato General de Subsistencias y Precios*) creating a Commission for the Control, Distribution, and Supply of Rubber (*Comisión de Control, Distribución y Abastecimiento del Caucho*) and its byproducts in order to avoid a shortage of such commodities. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, March 15, 1942.)

9. March 16, 1942. Statement issued by the cabinet that a thorough investigation would be

made of the circumstances surrounding the sinking of the Chilean vessel, S. S. *Toltén*, torpedoed 75 miles off New York on March 13. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, March 17, 1942.)

COLOMBIA

19. February 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 539 postponing the enforcement of Decree No. 223 of January 31, 1942, which provided for the reorganization of the Foreigners' Section (*Sección de Extranjeros*) of the National Police. (*Diario Oficial*, March 4, 1942.)

20. February 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 569 requiring all Traffic and Transit Bureaus (*Direcciones de Circulación y Tránsito*) to send similar offices in the rest of the country a monthly report of the driver's permits issued, giving name of driver, his nationality, license number, and numbers of his citizenship identity card and his military service pass book. (*Diario Oficial*, March 4, 1942.)

COSTA RICA

23a. March 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3 extending until April 30, 1942, the period for nationals of friendly nations resident in Costa Rica to secure their certificates of residence. (*La Gaceta*, April 1, 1942.)

25. March 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 9 carrying out Decrees No. 52 of December 26, 1941, and No. 1 of January 1, 1942 (see Costa Rica 14 and 16, BULLETIN, April 1942) and No. 6 of February 24, 1942 (see Costa Rica 22, BULLETIN, June 1942) by establishing an Alien Property Custody Board to execute decrees concerning the property and commercial affairs of subjects of enemy nations, and the control of commercial affairs of persons appearing on the black list. (*La Gaceta*, March 26, 1942.)

26. March 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 4 establishing an Office of Investigation and Control (*Oficina de Investigación y Control*) having to do with the prices of commodities of prime necessity specified in Decree No. 5 of July 9, 1936. (*La Gaceta*, March 28, 1942.)

CUBA

80c. March 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 894, prescribing additional functions for the Export-Import Agency of the Ministry of Commerce, in the interests of national defense. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 2, 1942, p. 5685.)

107a. March 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 849, defining additional functions for the Office of the Alien Property Custodian and

amending Presidential Decree No. 3343 of December 12, 1941, as amended by the Law of Security and Public Order of January 5, 1942, and Presidential Decree No. 3366 of December 15, 1941 (see Cuba 6, 36, and 9, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 30, 1942, p. 5430.)

107b. March 26, 1942. Resolution No. 15, Alien Property Custodian, exempting a specified person from the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 3343 of December 12, 1941 (see Cuba 6, BULLETIN, April 1942), and from other rules and regulations pertaining to enemy aliens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 30, 1942, p. 5433.)

107c. March 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 850, regulating the sugar production tax imposed by Resolution-Law No. 1 of December 31, 1941, as amended by Resolution-Law No. 15 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 33, BULLETIN, April, and 63, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 30, 1942, p. 5461.)

110. March 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 879, authorizing the Minister of Health and Social Welfare to draw upon the credit of \$250,000 assigned to his Ministry for special national defense purposes by Resolution-Law No. 16 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 64, BULLETIN, May 1942), to the extent of \$15,000 for the purchase of quinine. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 1, 1942, p. 5596.)

111. March 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 962, establishing a minimum price for tobacco in accordance with Resolution-Law No. 5, Production and Supply Law, of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 45, BULLETIN, April 1942); creating the National Tobacco Growers Association of Cuba (*Asociación Nacional de Cosecheros de Tabaco de Cuba*); and making other provisions regarding the production and supply of tobacco. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 11, 1942, p. 6265.)

112. March 28, 1942. Resolution, Ministry of Communications, requiring commercial radio broadcasting stations in the city of Habana to adjust their wave frequencies in order not to interfere with the services of United States naval radio stations, and prescribing penalties for non-compliance. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 16, 1942, p. 6593.)

113. March 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 935, increasing the 1942 sugar production quota, originally fixed at 3,600,000 long tons by Presidential Decree No. 385 of February 16, 1942 (see Cuba 72, BULLETIN, May 1942), to 3,950,000 long tons. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 8, 1942, p. 5974.)

114. March 30, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, adding lima beans to the list of fresh fruits and green vegetables exempted by Decree, Ministry of Commerce, March 6, 1942 (see Cuba 83, BULLETIN, June 1942) from the export control rules established by Presidential Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1942 (see Cuba 26, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 1, 1942, p. 5595.)

115. March 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 903, appropriating from the Ministry of Agriculture's credit of \$350,000 in the special national defense budget established by Resolution-Law No. 16 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 64, BULLETIN, May 1942), the sum of \$32,000 for the acquisition of agricultural implements. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 6, 1942, p. 5781.)

116. April 1, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 896, fixing the price of unshelled peanuts and peanut oil, in accordance with Resolution-Law No. 5 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 45, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 2, 1942, p. 5656.)

117. April 1, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, listing the iron and steel materials that fall within the rules and restrictions prescribed by Presidential Decree No. 858 of March 27, 1942 (see Cuba 108, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 4, 1942, p. 5718.)

118. April 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 907, advancing the official time by one hour for the duration of the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, April 4, 1942.)

119. April 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 908, regulating the sale and distribution of gasoline. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 6, 1942, p. 5783.)

120. April 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 982, establishing the maximum price for sugar throughout the Republic. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 11, 1942, p. 6267.)

121. April 5, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 932, suspending for 30 days the exportation of live cattle and refrigerated meats and prescribing other measures to correct the meat scarcity in Habana. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 7, 1942, p. 5910.)

122. April 8, 1942. Resolution No. 559, Ministry of Labor, clarifying the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 932 (see 121 above), to the effect that slaughterhouses closing for the prescribed 30-day period must pay the wages of their workmen during that time. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 9, 1942, p. 6104.)

123. April 8, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, prescribing the distribution of tires and

tubes for the month of April, in accordance with Presidential Decree No. 125 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 46, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 14, 1942, p. 6421.)

124. April 9, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, prescribing supplementary measures for the regulation of the sale and distribution of gasoline under the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 908 (see 119 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 11, 1942, p. 6268.)

125. April 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 983, appropriating \$58,485 from the special defense fund established by Resolution-Law No. 16 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 64, BULLETIN, May 1942), for enlargement of an air field and the acquisition of new lands for military purposes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 13, 1942, p. 6294.)

126. April 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 995, empowering the Minister of National Defense to name the person or persons to censor newspaper and radio stations with a view to preventing the publication or transmission of news on the movement of vessels and airplanes, in accordance with the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 3278 of November 29, 1941. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 14, 1942, p. 6425.)

127. April 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1009, broadening the provisions of Presidential Decrees No. 125 of January 20, 1942, and No. 908 of April 6, 1942 (see Cuba 46, BULLETIN, April 1942, and 119 above), in regard to the rationing of tires, tubes, and gasoline. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 14, 1942, p. 6421.)

128. April 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1019, prescribing measures to be adopted with reference to foreigners who have entered Cuba in transit to other countries but who are prevented from continuing their journey because of the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 15, 1942, p. 6522.)

129. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1016, modifying the customs tariff for the purpose of facilitating the use of available substitutes for the raw materials normally used in the manufacture of soap. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 14, 1942, p. 6454.)

130. April 14, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, prescribing rules for the rationing, distribution, and sale of tires and tubes for motor vehicles, in conformity with Presidential Decrees No. 125 of January 20, 1942, and No. 1009 of April 13, 1942 (see Cuba 46, BULLETIN, April 1942, and 127 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 23, 1942, p. 7094.)

131. April 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1056, limiting the use and benefit of government-owned automobiles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 16, 1942, p. 6648.)

132. April 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1072, prohibiting the entrance into Cuba of and the granting of visas to natives or citizens of enemy nations or nations controlled or occupied by the enemy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, April 18, 1942.)

133. April 15, 1942. Resolution No. 17, Alien Property Custodian, taking over the administration of specified properties and authorizing a Cuban citizen to collect the rents and interest pertaining thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 20, 1942, p. 6840.)

134. April 15, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, amplifying for the Province of Habana the distribution quota of tires and tubes for the month of April. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 21, 1942, p. 6970.)

135. April 16, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1061, regulating the administration and collection of the taxes created by Resolution-Law No. 1 of December 31, 1941, as amended by Resolution-Law No. 14 of February 6, 1942 (see Cuba 33, BULLETIN, April, and 62, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 18, 1942, p. 6775.)

136. April 16, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1069, calling to active service certain members of the Military Reserve. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 18, 1942, p. 6806.)

137. April 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1071, requiring, under authority of Resolution-Law No. 6 of January 22, 1942 (see Cuba 48, BULLETIN, April 1942) all persons resident within national territory to make a declaration of their radio equipment, including receiving and sending sets, parts, accessories, etc. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 20, 1942, p. 6872.)

138. April 17, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, exempting from the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1941 (see Cuba 26, BULLETIN, April 1942), exportation of nationally produced cheese and butter. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 22, 1942, p. 7062.)

139. April 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1081, exempting from all customs duties importation made by the Ministry of Agriculture of agricultural machinery, implements, seeds, animals for breeding, and other articles required for the development of national agriculture and stockraising. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 21, 1942, p. 6970.)

140. April 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1098, waiving customs duties for two years for national or foreign companies engaged in Cuba in the extraction, exploitation, improvement, smelting, or processing of nickel, on the importation from the United States of machinery, plant equipment and apparatus, instruments, and accessories of all kinds, such as fuel, lubricants, explosives, chemicals, etc. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 22, 1942, p. 7061.)

141. April 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1099, prohibiting the publication or transmission by press, radio, or other means, of statistical data regarding production and consumption, especially in relation to oil, sugar, molasses, strategic materials, and other products necessary to the war effort. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 22, 1942, p. 7067.)

142. April 21, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1096, suspending for the duration of the war, by authority of Resolution-Law No. 5 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 45, BULLETIN, April 1942), the dispossession of tenants of farms or portions of farms, providing such tenants are living on and cultivating the land. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 21, 1942, p. 6965.)

143. April 21, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1104, prescribing regulations for minimum salaries and wages, by authority of Resolution-Law No. 5 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 45, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 22, 1942, p. 7062.)

144. April 21, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1109, establishing in the Ministry of Communications an office for the censorship of mail. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 24, 1942, p. 7157.)

145. April 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1127, approving the additional contract for the purchase-sale of the 1942 sugar crop, in accordance with Presidential Decrees No. 178 of January 28, 1942, and No. 262 of February 4, 1942 (see Cuba 50, BULLETIN, April, and 57, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 25, 1942, p. 7285.)

146. April 24, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1118, authorizing the Minister of National Defense to intern nationals, citizens, or subjects of enemy nations in case they are considered dangerous to national security and to arrange for their deportation if necessary. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 25, 1942, p. 7256.)

147. April 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1136, accepting the offer of the services of a private short-wave radio station, for the broadcast of

official news pertaining to national defense measures. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 28, 1942, p. 7447.)

148. April 25, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, exempting canned pineapple and pimentos, honey, and beeswax from the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1941 (see Cuba 26, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 29, 1942, p. 7548.)

149. April 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1140, prescribing, under authority of Resolution-Law No. 5 of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 45, BULLETIN, April 1942), certain rules and regulations for the vegetable oil processing industry. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 29, 1942, p. 7546.)

150. April 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1171, prescribing certain conditions to prevail for the duration of the war regarding the exportation of nationally manufactured alcohol, aguardiente, beer, wines, and other vinous and spirituous liquors, as enumerated in Decree-Law No. 564 of February 4, 1936. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 30, 1942, p. 7573.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

21. March 24, 1942. Law No. 707, authorizing and establishing measures for the requisition or attachment of articles in the possession of individuals or private corporations in case the articles are considered indispensable or necessary for general utility, and particularly for the purpose of preventing monopolies or hoarding. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 28, 1942.)

22. March 31, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1588, requiring the declaration of stocks on hand of iron, steel, and similar materials, in pursuance to Law No. 707 (see 21 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 1, 1942.)

ECUADOR

6. (Presidential Decree No. 4. *Registro Oficial*, January 31, 1942.)

9. (*Registro Oficial*, February 9, 1942.)

9a. February 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 179, prohibiting the transfer of ownership of national merchant vessels to individuals or entities belonging to the Axis powers or countries occupied by them. (*Registro Oficial*, March 11, 1942.)

10. (Correction.) February 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 187. (*Registro Oficial*, February 26, 1942.)

11. February 19, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 231, prescribing regulations for the Office of

Priorities and Distribution of Imports established by Presidential Decree No. 187 of February 11, 1942 (see Ecuador 10, BULLETIN, June 1942, as corrected above). (*Registro Oficial*, February 27, 1942.)

12. February 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 264, regulating the control, distribution, and rationing of automobiles, trucks, station wagons, tires, tubes, etc. (*Registro Oficial*, February 28, 1942.)

13. March 21, 1942. Presidential Decree amending the organic law of the Central Bank to facilitate, in view of the present difficult circumstances, letters of credit for the importation of necessary merchandisc. (*El Telégrafo*, Guayaquil, March 24, 1942.)

14. March 24, 1942. Presidential Decree amending the regulations of the import control established by Presidential Decree No. 1397 of November 26, 1941, in order to facilitate the importation of articles of prime necessity. (*El Telégrafo*, Guayaquil, March 25, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

12a. March 5, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 11 approving the agreement signed in Washington February 2, 1942, by the Chargé d'Affaires ad interim of El Salvador and the Secretary of State of the United States providing for the acquisition of arms for the defense of El Salvador (see El Salvador 6, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, March 11, 1942.)

14. March 9, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 16 providing for government control of all possessions, enterprises, and industries belonging to nationals of enemy nations. (*Diario Oficial*, March 12, 1942.)

15. March 10, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 18 authorizing the Executive Power to purchase from Pan American Airways a hangar at the Ilopango airport to be used for defense purposes. (*Diario Oficial*, March 14, 1942.)

16. March 12, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 19 ratifying, among others, the Presidential Decree of January 8, 1942 (see El Salvador 7, BULLETIN, April 1942), with reference to the termination of certain treaties with Germany and Italy. (*Diario Oficial*, March 16, 1942.)

17. March 13, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 21 providing that payments of debts owed persons falling under the restrictions regarding blocked funds should be deposited in a special

account in the Central Reserve Bank of El Salvador. (*Diario Oficial*, March 16, 1942.)

GUATEMALA

16. March 30, 1942. Presidential Order reducing, for the duration of present abnormal conditions, the sale of gasoline by 15 percent, taking the sales of the past year as a basis. (*Diario de Centro América*, March 31, 1942.)

17. April 1, 1942. Presidential Order regulating the purchase and sale of rubber and its byproducts. (*Diario de Centro América*, April 7, 1942.)

18. April 11, 1942. Presidential Order putting into effect various measures for controlling rubber exploitation. (*Diario de Centro América*, April 13, 1942.)

HAITI

37. March 19, 1942. Executive Decree prohibiting the reexportation of new or used automobiles, tires, tubes, or other accessories, in accordance with the provisions of the Decree-Law of January 13, 1942, and the decrees of February 2 and 14, 1942 (see Haiti 21, BULLETIN, May 1942 and 26 and 29, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*Le Matin*, Port-au-Prince, March 20, 1942.)

38. March 19, 1942. Executive Decree modifying Decree No. 104 of January 16, 1942 (see Haiti 22, BULLETIN, May 1942), to include banking firms that have been established in Haiti at least twenty years and are controlled by citizens of allied nations. (*Le Matin*, Port-au-Prince, March 26, 1942.)

MEXICO

20a. February 24, 1942. Executive Order to the Department of National Economy, outlining administrative procedure to be followed by government departments in order to obtain certificates of necessity for materials or articles imported from the United States. (*Diario Oficial*, April 3, 1942.)

22. March 10, 1942. Treasury Department Circular, listing the articles whose importation was prohibited by the Regulation of February 3, 1942 (see Mexico 16, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, March 28, 1942.)

23. March 10, 1942. Regulation for the organization and functioning of camps of military instruction, effective 10 days following publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, April 7, 1942.)

24. March 26, 1942. Decree providing for the collection by means of stamps of the tax levied on certificates of necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, April 4, 1942.)

25. March 31, 1942. Decree providing for a monthly declaration of stocks on hand of articles of prime necessity by all farmers, merchants, and industrialists operating with a capital of more than 500 pesos. Effective three days after publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, April 13, 1942.)

26. April 1, 1942. Decree changing the official time, as of April 1, 1942, in the Territory of Lower California and the States of Sonora, Sinaloa, and Nayarit, to conform to the "war time" of the Pacific Coast of the United States. (*Diario Oficial*, April 24, 1942.)

27. April 7, 1942. Decree providing for a monthly declaration of stocks of scrap iron by dealers and industrialists operating with a capital of more than 500 pesos. Effective one day after publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, April 22, 1942.)

28. April 20, 1942. Decree prohibiting the importation of arms and ammunition, except for .22 calibre pistols and rifles and small game shotguns in which ball cartridges cannot be used, and the ammunition suitable for such arms. Effective May 1, 1942. (*Diario Oficial*, May 2, 1942.)

29. April 21, 1942. Decree requiring merchants and shop owners with a capital of more than 10,000 pesos, engaged in buying and selling one or more articles of food considered of prime necessity, to register in the Department of National Economy and thereafter to make weekly declarations of stocks of such articles. (*Diario Oficial*, April 29, 1942.)

30. April 21, 1942. Decree prohibiting the exportation of corn, beans, and rice. (*Diario Oficial*, April 29, 1942.)

31. April 22, 1942. Decree repealing the Decree of February 24, 1942, restricting the production and sale of tires and tubes (see Mexico 19, BULLETIN, June 1942), and establishing new modified regulations pertaining to tire and tube production and sale. (*Diario Oficial*, April 30, 1942.)

NICARAGUA

13. February 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 77 supplementing Decrees No. 70, 71, and 72 of December 16, 1941 (see Nicaragua 4, 5, and 6, BULLETIN, April 1942), and further regulating the status of firms and individuals of enemy nations. (*La Gaceta*, February 20, 1942.)

PARAGUAY

2. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 29, 1942.)

3. (*Gaceta Oficial*, January 27, 1942.)

4. February 16, 1942. Decree-Law No. 11061, fixing the scope of the severance of relations with Germany, Italy, and Japan, particularly with reference to nationals of those powers resident in Paraguay; restricting all kinds of activities of such nations or of their institutions, associations, or societies that might endanger national or continental security; prohibiting the exhibition of films and the circulation of newspapers, magazines, books, and other printed matter favorable to the Axis; prohibiting to Axis vessels the use of ports and navigation in national waters; requiring the surrender of all firearms owned by Axis nationals; and prescribing other similar restrictive measures. (*El País*, Asunción, February 18, 1942.)

5. February 16, 1942. Decree-Law prohibiting radiotelephone, radiotelegraph, and telephone communications with the Axis powers and countries occupied by them; canceling radiocommunications licenses held by Axis nationals in Paraguay; and establishing other restrictions, control, and censorship on the transmission of communications. (*El País*, Asunción, February 20, 1942.)

6. February 20, 1942. Decree-Law No. 11124, requiring the use of nationally manufactured cotton bags for nationally produced sugar and flour, to replace jute bags no longer obtainable from abroad and to develop national industry and the use of national products; and levying an additional duty on jute bags obtained from abroad. (*El País*, Asunción, February 25, 1942.)

7. February 27, 1942. Resolution No. 13/42, Director General of the Postal and Telegraph Service, ordering that measures be taken to prevent the circulation of any kind of printed matter favorable to the Axis, in compliance with Decree-Law No. 11061 (see 4 above). (*El País*, Asunción, March 4, 1942.)

8. February 27, 1942. Resolution No. 14/42, Director General of the Postal and Telegraph Service, prohibiting the acceptance by post offices of mail addressed to the Axis powers or countries occupied by them. (*El País*, Asunción, March 4, 1942.)

9. March 5, 1942. Executive Decree No. 11394, regulating the acquisition of articles considered of general necessity. (*El País*, Asunción, March 6, 1942.)

10. March 6, 1942. Resolution No. 30, General Office of Industry and Commerce, prescribing the articles of general necessity that are subject to the provisions of Executive Decree No. 11394

(sec 9 above). (*El País*, Asunción, March 9, 1942.)

11. March 7, 1942. Decree-Law No. 11419, authorizing the Bank of the Republic of Paraguay to establish three- to five-year credits or loans, up to 60 percent of the value of the security offered, to aid national defense industries or those using national raw materials in manufacture. (*El País*, Asunción, March 9, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

50a. February 10, 1942. Public Law 450 (77th Congress), authorizing overtime pay for certain employees of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics.

93. March 31, 1942. Executive Order No. 9117, prescribing regulations covering overtime compensation of certain employees of the National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics. (*Federal Register*, April 3, 1942.)

94. April 1, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2545, authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to permit, in view of the emergency that exists by reason of the present war, the free importation into Puerto Rico of jerked beef. (*Federal Register*, April 7, 1942.)

95. April 2, 1942. Public Law 513 (77th Congress), providing for the expeditious naturalization of former citizens of the United States who have lost United States citizenship through service with the allied forces of the United States during the First or Second World War.

96. April 7, 1942. Public Law 517 (77th Congress), providing for the payment for accumulative or accrued annual leave to certain employees of the United States, its Territories or possessions, or the District of Columbia, who voluntarily enlist or otherwise enter the military or naval forces of the United States.

97. April 7, 1942. Executive Order No. 9125, defining additional functions, duties, and powers of the War Production Board and the Office of Price Administration. (*Federal Register*, April 10, 1942.)

98. April 8, 1942. Public Law 520 (77th Congress), extending the crediting of military service under the Railroad Retirement Acts, and for other purposes.

99. April 8, 1942. Executive Order No. 9126, transferring cognizance of the duties and functions of the Hydrographic Office and the Naval Observatory from the Bureau of Navigation, Navy Department, to the Chief of Naval Operations. (*Federal Register*, April 11, 1942.)

100. April 9, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2549, on "Enumeration of arms, ammunition, and implements of war." (*Federal Register*, April 14, 1942.)

101. April 10, 1942. Public Law 522 (77th Congress), amending the Act entitled "An Act to expedite the provision of housing in connection with national defense, and for other purposes," approved October 14, 1940, as amended.

102. April 10, 1942. Executive Order No. 9127, designating the departments and agencies to inspect the plants and audit the books and records of defense contractors under Title XIII of the Second War Powers Act, 1942 (see United States 89, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*Federal Register*, April 11, 1942.)

103. April 11, 1942. Public Law 523 (77th Congress), amending war-risk insurance provisions of the Merchant Marine Act, 1936, as amended, in order to expedite ocean transportation and assist the war effort.

104. April 11, 1942. Public Law 524 (77th Congress), Joint Resolution to provide decorations for outstanding conduct or service by persons serving in the American merchant marine.

105. April 13, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2550, suspending quotas on imports of certain wheat and wheat flour. (*Federal Register*, April 16, 1942.)

106. April 13, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2551, suspending, by reason of the sugar shortage caused by the war, the operation of Title II of the Sugar Act of 1937, as amended. (*Federal Register*, April 16, 1942.)

107. April 13, 1942. Executive Order No. 9132, withdrawing specified public lands in Montana for use of the War Department in connection with the Fort Peck Dam and Reservoir project. (*Federal Register*, April 16, 1942.)

108. April 15, 1942. Executive Order No. 9134, amending Executive Order No. 8757 of May 20, 1941, establishing the Office of Civilian Defense. (*Federal Register*, April 18, 1942.)

109. April 17, 1942. Executive Order No. 9138, providing further for the administration of the requisitioning of property required for the prosecution of the war. (*Federal Register*, April 21, 1942.)

110. April 18, 1942. Executive Order No. 9139, establishing the War Manpower Commission in the Executive Office of the President and transferring and coordinating certain functions to facilitate the mobilization and utilization of manpower. (*Federal Register*, April 21, 1942.)

111. April 18, 1942. Executive Order No. 9141, authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to take possession of and operate the plants of the Brewster Aeronautical Corporation. (*Federal Register*, April 22, 1942.)

112. April 21, 1942. Executive Order No. 9142, transferring certain functions, property, and personnel from the Department of Justice to the Alien Property Custodian. (*Federal Register*, April 23, 1942.)

113. April 21, 1942. Executive Order No. 9143, withdrawing specified public lands in California for use of the War Department for holding, reassignment, and quartermaster depots. (*Federal Register*, April 23, 1942.)

114. April 21, 1942. Rationing Order No. 3 issued by the Price Administrator pursuant to Public Law 421 (77th Congress), Emergency Price Control Act of 1942 (see United States 42, BULLETIN, April 1942) setting forth sugar rationing regulations in the United States. (*Federal Register*, April 22, 1942.)

115. April 27, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2553, declaring an emergency due to a state of war and authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to permit, until the termination of the war, the free importation by the American Red Cross of food, clothing, and medical, surgical, and other supplies. (*Federal Register*, April 30, 1942.)

116. April 28, 1942. Public Law 528 (77th Congress). Sixth Supplemental National Defense Appropriation Act, 1942, making additional appropriations for the national defense for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1942, and for other purposes (including \$421,696,562 for army pay, travel, and other purposes; \$1,333,725,277 for the Quartermaster Service, Army; \$748,149,000 for the Signal Service, Army; \$8,515,861,251 for the Air Corps, Army; \$151,240,000 for Medical and Hospital Department; \$5,306,163,883 for the Engineer Service, Army; \$548,221,283 for Ordnance Service and Supplies, Army; \$367,366,311 for Chemical Warfare Service, Army; \$183,692,000 for Ordnance and Ordnance Stores, Navy; \$800,000,000 for naval public works and public utilities, Bureau of Yards and Docks, including the acquisition of necessary land; \$464,827,500 for Aviation, Navy; \$9,395,000 for general expenses, Marine Corps; \$595,000,000 for increase and replacement of naval vessels; \$25,000,000 for repair facilities, Navy; \$21,400,000 for construction of vessels and shore facilities, Coast Guard; \$5,000,000 for maritime training fund,

Coast Guard; and \$10,000,000 for naval emergency fund).

117. April 28, 1942. Public Law 530 (77th Congress), suspending during war or a national emergency the provisions of Section 322 of the Act of June 30, 1932, as amended, relating to leases of such privately or publicly owned property as are certified by the Secretaries of War or the Navy as covering premises for military, naval, or civilian purposes necessary for the prosecution of the war or vital in the national emergency.

118. April 28, 1942. Public Law 531 (77th Congress), authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to proceed with the construction of certain public works (fleet, aviation, storage, training and housing, hospital, and radio shore facilities, lighter-than-air and floating drydock programs, research, and miscellaneous structures), at a total cost not exceeding \$800,000,000.

119. April 28, 1942. Executive Order No. 9150, authorizing the Federal Public Housing Commissioner, National Housing Agency, to acquire and dispose of property that shall be deemed necessary for war purposes. (*Federal Register*, May 1, 1942.)

120. April 28, 1942. Executive Order No. 9151, transferring certain public land in Florida from Public Buildings Administration, Federal Works Agency, to the War Department. (*Federal Register*, May 1, 1942.)

121. April 28, 1942. Office of Price Administration, General Maximum Price Regulations, in accordance with Emergency Price Control Act, 1942 (see United States 42, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Bulletin No. 7*, Office of Price Administration, April 28, 1942.)

122. April 29, 1942. Public Law 532 (77th Congress), amending the Act entitled "An Act to require the registration of certain persons employed by agencies to disseminate propaganda in the United States, and for other purposes," approved June 8, 1938, as amended.

123. April 29, 1942. Public Law 535 (77th Congress), increasing the monthly maximum number of flying hours of air pilots, as limited by the Civil Aeronautics Act of 1938, because of the military needs arising out of the present war.

124. April 29, 1942. Executive Order No. 9152, authorizing the Secretary of Commerce to make such special investigations and reports of census or statistical matters as may be needed in connection with the conduct of the war. (*Federal Register*, May 2, 1942.)

125. May 2, 1942. Executive Order No. 9156, further defining the functions and duties of the Office of Defense Transportation. (*Federal Register*, May 6, 1942.)

URUGUAY

10. (*Diario Oficial*, March 9, 1942.)

11. February 5, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1381, authorizing the immediate organization by the Ministry of National Defense of a General Office of Civilian Defense, pending approval of a proposed civilian defense law submitted to the consideration of the General Assembly on December 15, 1941. (*Diario Oficial*, March 7, 1942.)

12. February 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1404, appointing an administrator to have charge of matters connected with the importation of war materials and other supplies acquired by the Government in the United States. (*Diario Oficial*, March 9, 1942.)

13. February 26, 1942. Presidential Decree, amending for the duration of the war the provisions of the International Convention on Load Lines signed in London on July 5, 1930, insofar as they are applicable to Uruguayan vessels, in order to counteract the scarcity of bottoms. (*Diario Oficial*, March 9, 1942.)

14. March 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 438, authorizing radio broadcasts and the circulation of printed material in praise or defense of democracy, in languages other than Spanish, Portuguese, English, or French, provided such broadcasts or publications were being made regularly prior to issuance of the Presidential Decree of January 28, 1942 (see Uruguay 8, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, March 19, 1942.)

VENEZUELA

14a. February 28, 1942. Resolution No. 7, National Price Regulation Board (*Junta Nacional Reguladora de Precios*), fixing the maximum sales price for certain medicinal products. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 4, 1942.)

14b. March 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 41 confirming and extending the restriction of certain civil guarantees; authorizing two exchange markets, one controlled and one free; and prescribing further measures designed to promote agriculture and stockraising. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 4, 1942.)

14c. March 6, 1942. Resolution No. 8, National Price Regulation Board, fixing as maximum sales prices for electric refrigerators those in effect December 1, 1941. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 6, 1942.)

16. March 10, 1942. Resolution No. 85, Treasury Department, prohibiting the exportation or reexportation, without a previous license, of pleasure automobiles and of all station wagons. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 10, 1942.)

17. March 11, 1942. Resolution No. 308, Ministry of Promotion, fixing the locations of certain local price regulation boards. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 11, 1942.)

18. March 11, 1942. Resolution No. 310, Ministry of Promotion, listing the districts to be controlled by various local price regulation boards. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 11, 1942.)

19. March 13, 1942. Resolution No. 314, Ministry of Promotion, providing that paper cups shall be included in the list of articles of prime necessity subject to price regulation by price regulation boards. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 13, 1942.)

20. March 14, 1942. Resolution No. 9, National Price Regulation Board, providing for control of the sale of food products and the fixing of maximum prices in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 14, 1942, Special Edition No. 8.)

21. March 14, 1942. Resolution No. 10, National Price Regulation Board, providing for control of the sale of raw materials and manufactured products and for the fixing of maximum sales prices in the Federal District and in the Sucre District of the State of Miranda. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 14, 1942, Special Edition No. 8.)

22. March 18, 1942. Resolution No. 11, National Price Regulation Board, relative to the maximum sales price of tires and inner tubes in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 19, 1942.)

23. March 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 57, suspending certain constitutional guarantees; ordering the War and Navy Department to take over one German and six Italian boats anchored in Puerto Cabello, and either to scrap or sink outside the bay of Puerto Cabello the German ship *Sesostri*, already rendered useless by fire; and authorizing the Attorney General to further the inspection of the ships in question in order to ascertain their condition. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 20, 1942.)

24. March 20, 1942. Resolution No. 12, National Price Regulation Board, relative to the establishment of maximum sales prices and the control of sales of refrigerators. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 20, 1942.)

25. March 27, 1942. Resolution No. 362, Ministry of Promotion, fixing the locations of certain local price regulation boards. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 28, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

2a. February 27, 1942. Two joint arrangements between the United States and Canada, in accordance with a recommendation of the Joint Economic Committees, Canada-United States, providing (1) for increasing the production of oil-bearing crops in the United States and of oats, barley, and flax in Canada, to meet wartime needs of both countries; and (2) for facilitating the seasonal movement of farm labor and machinery across the common boundary. (*Bulletin*, U. S. Department of State, April 11, 1942.)

12. April 6, 1942. Agreements between the United States and Haiti, in furtherance of the war effort, covering: Purchase by the Commodity Credit Corporation of Haiti's carry-over of the 1941 cotton crop and all the surplus of the 1942 crop; extension of credit by the Export-Import Bank of Washington in amounts necessary to strengthen the Haitian gourde-United States dollar relationship; joint arrangements for planting approximately 24,000 additional acres of sisal in Haiti; measures for the military and naval services of the United States to assist the Government of Haiti to defend its own territory and to participate in hemispheric defense, including assistance in the construction of a marine railway at Port-au-Prince, stationing of vessels for coast guard and patrol purposes in Haitian waters and the training of Haitian cadets on such vessels, provision of a number of artillery units for coast defense and other purposes and of military aircraft with mechanics and instructors to train members of the Haitian Guard, construction of a new patrol boat for use in the defense of Haitian coastal waters, and the overhauling and repair of additional shipping of Haitian registry for coastal and patrol duties; and active collaboration of the two Governments in carrying out a number of health and sanitation projects within the Republic of Haiti. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, April 18, 1942.)

13. April 8, 1942. Exchange of notes between the United States and Nicaragua providing for the

construction of the Nicaraguan section of the Inter-American Highway in accordance with the Inter-American Highway Act of the United States of December 26, 1941 (see *BULLETIN*, May 1942, pp. 288-289); an extension of credit by the Export-Import Bank of Washington; the availability of supplies and equipment vital to the economy of Nicaragua; defense measures of mutual interest; purchase by the Rubber Reserve Company of all crude rubber produced in Nicaragua which is available for export; and the development of rubber and abacá production for purchase by the United States. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, April 25, 1942.)

14. April 23, 1942. Exchange of notes between Peru and the United States incorporating the following: (1) Measures for the mobilization of Peru's resources for the production of strategic materials essential for the security of the hemisphere, involving especially (a) establishment by Peru of a Peruvian Amazon Corporation and (b) acquisition by the Rubber Reserve Company over a five-year period of all rubber produced in Peru except a specified amount needed for essential national use; (2) an Export-Import Bank credit of \$25,000,000 in favor of the Central Reserve Bank of Peru (*Banco Central de Reserva del Perú*) to assist in financing purchases in the United States of materials and equipment required for construction and development in Peru of useful public works and of agricultural, mining, and industrial projects; (3) establishment of an agricultural experiment station at Tingo María and the loan of United States experts in highway engineering, erosion control, coal mining, and tea processing; and (4) purchase by the Commodity Credit Corporation, for the duration of the war, of surplus Peruvian cotton. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, April 25, 1942.)

15. April 29, 1942. Agreement between Metals Reserve Company of the United States and the Mexican Government regarding the purchase by the former of copper, lead, and zinc in metallic form or in ores and concentrates, with a view particularly toward stimulating the production in Mexico of strategic and critical metals and minerals required in the United States war effort and necessary to hemispheric defense. (Press release, the United States Secretary of Commerce, April 29, 1942.)

Pan American News

Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration

In order to cope with any problem that might arise, in case the islands or regions in the Americas under the possession of non-American nations should be in danger of becoming the subject of barter of territory or change of sovereignty, thus endangering the peace of the continent, the Second Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics approved two important instruments: the Act of Habana concerning the Provisional Administration of European Colonies and Possessions in the Americas and the Convention with the same title. The Act of Habana was signed as an emergency measure, to be replaced by the Convention as soon as two-thirds of the American Republics had deposited their respective instruments of ratification with the Pan American Union.

The first instrument, of a provisional nature, created an Emergency Committee, composed of one representative from each of the American Republics. As soon as the Convention came into effect, the authority and functions exercised by the Emergency Committee were to be transferred to the Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration.

The fourteenth ratification of the Habana Convention was deposited January 8, 1942; and in accordance with paragraph 2 of Article XIX the Convention entered into force on that date. When the Convention became effective it was evident that the authority and functions of the Emergency Committee, created by the Act of Habana, should pass to the

Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration; but it remained to be decided whether or not the representatives appointed to serve on the Emergency Committee should be considered members of the Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration.

In order to settle this point the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, at its meeting of April 6, 1942, approved the interpretation drawn up in the following resolution:

1. That until the respective Governments shall communicate to the Pan American Union the name of another representative, the member designated to serve on the Emergency Committee created by the Act of Habana shall be considered to be a member of the Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration.

2. That the Governments which have ratified the Convention, but have not named a representative on the Emergency Committee or the Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration, be urged to designate their member on the latter Commission as soon as possible.

3. That those Governments that have not yet ratified the Convention on the Provisional Administration of European Colonies and Possessions in the Americas be urged to give early consideration to such ratification.

4. That the representatives of those Governments that have not yet ratified the Convention but have appointed members on the Emergency Committee be considered as eligible to attend any meetings that may be held by the Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration pending ratification of the Convention by their respective Governments.

5. That the Government which desires to convene the Commission, as provided for in the Convention, shall communicate this desire to the Pan American Union, indicating the city in which the meeting is to be held, and the Union shall notify the members of the Commission and shall inform all the other States, parties to the Convention.

According to reports received by the Pan American Union up to June 1, 1942, the status of the ratifications of the Habana Convention, as well as that of the appoint-

ments made by the various States to the Inter-American Commission for Territorial Administration and the Emergency Committee, is as follows:

	Convention ratified	Representatives on the Inter-American Com- mission for Territorial Administration	Representatives on the Emergency Committee who will be considered members of the Inter-American Com- mission for Territorial Adminis- tration until members of the Commission are appointed
Argentina	Yes	Dr. Felipe A. Espil, Ambassador to the U. S. Alternate: Señor don Rodolfo García Arias, Minister attached to the Washington Embassy.	Dr. Luis Fernando Guachalla, Ambassador to the U. S.
Bolivia	No	
Brazil	Yes	Dr. Mauricio Nabuco, Secretary Gen- eral, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil.	
Chile	No	Dr. Rodolfo Michels, Amba- sador to the U. S.
Colombia	Yes	Dr. Gabriel Turbay, Ambassador to the U. S.	Dr. Aurelio F. Conchoso, Am- bassador to the U. S.
Costa Rica	Yes	Dr. Luis Fernández, Minister to the U. S.	
Cuba	No	
Dominican Republic . .	Yes	Dr. J. M. Troncoso, Minister to the U. S.	Dr. Héctor David Castro, Min- ister to the U. S.
Ecuador	Yes	Captain Colón Eloy Alfaro, Ambassador to the U. S.	
El Salvador	Yes	To be appointed	
Guatemala	Yes	Dr. Adrián Recinos, Minister to the U. S.	Dr. León De Bayle, Minister to the U. S.
Haiti	Yes	M. Fernand Dennis, Minister to the U. S.	
Honduras	Yes	Dr. Julián R. Cáceres, Minister to the U. S.	
Mexico	Yes	Dr. Francisco Castillo Nájera, Amba- sador to the U. S.	Dr. Celso Velázquez, Ambassa- dor to the U. S.
Nicaragua	Yes	To be appointed	
Panama	Yes	Dr. Ernesto Jaén Guardia, Ambassador to the U. S.	
Paraguay	No	Dr. Juan Carlos Blanco, Am- bassador to the U. S.
Peru	Yes	Sr. Don Manuel de Freyre y Santander, Ambassador to the U. S.	
United States	Yes	Hon. Sumner Welles, Under Secretary of State.	
Uruguay	Yes	To be appointed	Dr. Juan Carlos Blanco, Am- bassador to the U. S.
Venezuela	Yes	Dr. Diógenes Escalante, Ambassador to the U. S.	

Panama leases defense sites to the United States

The Governments of the Republic of Panama and the United States of America have reached an important agreement covering the use by the armed forces of the United States of numerous defense areas in the Republic of Panama. The agreement, to enter into effect when approved by the National Assembly of Panama, was signed in the capital of that country on May 18, 1942, by the Ambassador of the United States, Edwin C. Wilson, and the Panamanian Minister of Foreign Affairs, Octavio Fábrega.

At the same time announcement was made of the satisfactory settlement of certain outstanding problems in the relations between the two countries, as embodied in notes exchanged the same day between the Secretary of State and Dr. Ernesto Jaén Guardia, the Panamanian Ambassador in Washington. Among the various points on which agreement has been reached, the following are of particular significance: The withdrawal of the Panama Railroad Company from real estate operations in the cities of Panamá and Colón, by turning over to Panama certain lots owned by the Company in those cities; the delivery to the Government of Panama of the waterworks and sewerage systems lying wholly within territory under the jurisdiction of the Republic of Panama; and the liquidation of Panama's indebtedness arising out of the construction of the strategic Río Hato-Chorrera Highway. The agreements reached on these three points will be submitted to the Congress of the United States for approval.

Pending the conclusion of the agreement for the use of the defense areas, the Panamanian Government has permitted the military forces of the United States to occupy and develop these areas as gun em-

placements, airplane detector stations, bombing ranges and auxiliary airfields. The largest of these is the Río Hato Air Base, situated some eighty miles to the southwest of the Canal.

Immediately following the attack by the Japanese on Pearl Harbor, Panama declared war on Japan, Germany, and Italy, and since that time has taken numerous and effective steps which have demonstrated that Republic's willingness to assume promptly and wholeheartedly its responsibility as a partner in the defense of the Panama Canal, in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation signed at Washington, March 2, 1936.

The agreement on defense sites was said by the United States Department of State to be another significant landmark in the history of the relations between the United States and Panama and to constitute an important contribution to the security of the Canal and the defense of the Hemisphere.

The text of the agreement follows:

The undersigned, Octavio Fábrega, Minister for Foreign Affairs of the Republic of Panama, and Edwin C. Wilson, Ambassador of the United States of America, acting on behalf of our respective governments, for which we are duly and legally authorized, have concluded the following agreement:

The Governments of the Republic of Panama and of the United States of America, conscious of their joint obligation, as expressed in the provisions of the General Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation, concluded March 2, 1936, to take all measures required for the effective protection of the Panama Canal in which they are jointly and vitally interested, have consulted together and have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE I

The Republic of Panama grants to the United States the temporary use for defense purposes of the lands referred to in the Memorandum attached to this Agreement and forming an integral part thereof. These lands shall be evacuated and the use thereof by the United States of

America shall terminate one year after the date on which the definitive treaty of peace which brings about the end of the present war shall have entered into effect. If within that period the two Governments believe that, in spite of the cessation of hostilities, a state of international insecurity continues to exist which makes vitally necessary the continuation of the use of any of the said defense bases or areas, the two Governments shall again enter into mutual consultation and shall conclude the new agreement which the circumstances require.

The national authorities of the Republic of Panama shall have adequate facilities for access to the defense sites mentioned herein.

ARTICLE II

The grant mentioned in the foregoing article shall include the right to use the waters adjacent to the said areas of land and to improve and deepen the entrances thereto and the anchorage in such places as well as to perform in/on the said areas of land all the works that may be necessary in connection with the effective protection of the Canal. This gives no right to commercial exploitation or utilization of the soil or subsoil, or of adjacent beaches and streams.

ARTICLE III

Military and naval aircraft of Panama shall be authorized to land at and take off from the airports established within the areas referred to in Article I. Similarly, military and naval aircraft of the United States shall be authorized to use military and naval airports established by the Republic of Panama. The regulations covering such reciprocal use shall be embodied in an agreement to be negotiated by the appropriate authorities of the two countries.

ARTICLE IV

The Republic of Panama retains its sovereignty over the areas of land and water mentioned in the Memorandum referred to in Article I and the air space thereover, as well as complete jurisdiction in civil matters, provided, however, that during the period of temporary occupation contemplated by this agreement, the Government of the United States shall have complete use of such areas and exclusive jurisdiction in all respects over the civil and military personnel of the United States situated therein, and their families, and shall be empowered, moreover, to exclude such persons as it sees fit without regard to nationality, from these areas, without prejudice

to the provisions of the second paragraph of Article I of this Agreement, and to arrest, try and punish all persons who, in such areas, maliciously commit any crime against the safety of the military installations therein; provided, however, that any Panamanian citizen arrested or detained on any charges shall be delivered to the authorities of the Republic of Panama for trial and punishment.

ARTICLE V

The Republic of Panama and the United States reiterate their understanding of the temporary character of the occupation of the defense sites covered by this Agreement. Consequently, the United States, recognizing the importance of the cooperation given by Panama in making these temporary defense sites available and also recognizing the burden which the occupation of these sites imposes upon the Republic of Panama, expressly undertakes the obligation to evacuate the lands to which this contract refers and to terminate completely the use thereof, at the latest within one year after the date on which the definitive treaty of peace which brings about the cessation of the present war shall have entered into effect. It is understood, as has been expressed in Article I that if within this period the two Governments believe that in spite of the cessation of hostilities, a state of international insecurity continues to exist which makes vitally necessary the continuation of the use of any of the said defense bases or sites, the two Governments shall again enter into mutual consultation and shall conclude the new agreement which the circumstances require.

ARTICLE VI

All buildings and structures which are erected by the United States in the said areas shall be the property of the United States, and may be removed by it before the expiration of this Agreement. Any other buildings or structures already existing in the areas at the time of occupation shall be available for the use of the United States. There shall be no obligation on the part of the United States herein or the Republic of Panama to rebuild or repair any destruction or damage inflicted from any cause whatsoever on any of the said buildings or structures owned or used by the United States in the said areas. The United States is not obliged to turn over to Panama the areas at the expiration of this lease in the condition in which they were at the time of their occupation, nor is the Republic of Panama

obliged to allow any compensation to the United States for the improvements made in the said areas or for the buildings or structures left thereon, all of which shall become the property of the Republic of Panama upon the termination of the use by the United States of the areas where the structures have been built.

ARTICLE VII

The areas of land referred to in Article I, the property of the United States situated therein, and the military and civilian personnel of the United States and families thereof who live in the said areas, shall be exempt from any tax, imposts or other charges of any kind by the Republic of Panama or its political subdivisions during the term of this Agreement.

ARTICLE VIII

The United States shall complete the construction at its own expense of the highways described below, under the conditions and with the materials specified:

Highway A-3. (Shall extend from Piña on the Atlantic side of the Isthmus to the Canal Zone boundary at the Río Providencia. It shall be at least ten feet in width and constructed of macadam.)

Extension of the Trans-Isthmian Highway following the line of the P-8 road. (Specifications shall be the same as for the Trans-Isthmian Highway. The extension shall start at Madrinal, bypassing Madden Dam by a bridge over the Chagres River below the Dam to connect with the P-8 road at Roque and shall extend the P-8 road from Pueblo Nuevo into Panama City. It is understood that the pavement of the bridge over the Chagres River will be located above the elevation established as the Canal Zone boundary.)

Upon the completion of these highways, the Government of the United States will assume the responsibility for any necessary post construction operations, that is, the performance of work necessary to perfect the original construction until such time as the roads become stabilized.

The Government of Panama guarantees that all roads under its jurisdiction used periodically or frequently by the armed forces of the United States will be well and properly maintained at all times. The Government of Panama will ask for the cooperation of the Government of the United States in the performance of repair and maintenance work on the said roads whenever it deems necessary such cooperation in order to fulfill the aforesaid guarantee such as, for example, in the

case of emergencies or situations which require prompt action.

The Government of the United States will bear one-third of the total annual maintenance cost of all Panamanian roads used periodically or frequently by the armed forces of the United States, such cost to cover the expense of any wear or damage to roads caused by movements related to defense activities. The amount payable by the United States will be based upon accounts presented annually by the Republic of Panama giving in detail the total annual expenditures made by it on each highway used periodically or frequently by the armed forces of the United States and upon accounts similarly presented by the Government of the United States giving in similar detail the expenditures made by that Government in response to requests from the Government of Panama as set forth above. In the event that the Government of the United States has rendered cooperation in the maintenance of the said roads, the expenses incurred by that Government in so doing will be credited toward the share of the United States in the total maintenance of the roads under the jurisdiction of Panama.

In consideration of the above obligations and responsibilities of the United States, the Government of the Republic of Panama grants the right of transit for the routine movement of the members of the armed forces of the United States, the civilian members of such forces and their families, as well as animals, animal-drawn and motor vehicles employed by the armed forces or by contractors employed by them for construction work or others whose activities are in any way related to the defense program, on roads constructed by the United States in territory under the jurisdiction of the Republic of Panama and on the other national highways which place the Canal Zone in communication with the defense areas and of the latter with each other. It should be understood that the United States will take at all times the precautions necessary to avoid, if possible, interruptions of transit in the Republic of Panama.

ARTICLE IX

All roads constructed by the United States in the territory under the jurisdiction of the Republic of Panama shall be under the jurisdiction of Panama. As to those secondary roads constructed by the United States for the purpose of giving access to any defense site, Panama grants to the military authorities of the United States the right to restrict or prohibit public travel on such roads

within a reasonable distance from such sites if such restriction or prohibition is necessary to the military protection of such sites. It is understood that such restriction or prohibition is without prejudice to the free access of the inhabitants established within the restricted areas to their respective properties. It is also understood that such restriction or prohibition is not to be exercised on any part of any main highway.

ARTICLE X

The Government of the United States of America, when constructing the air bases and airports on any of the sites referred to in Article I, shall take into consideration, in addition to the requirements of a technical order for the safety thereof, such regulations on the matter as have been or may be promulgated by the joint Aviation Board.

The Republic of Panama shall not permit, without reaching an agreement with the United States, the erection or maintenance of any aerial lines or other obstructions which may constitute a danger for persons flying in the vicinity of the areas intended for air bases or airports. If, in constructing the said air bases and airports, it should be necessary to remove lines of wire already strung because of their constituting an obstacle thereto, the Government of the United States shall pay the costs of the removal and new installation elsewhere which may be occasioned.

ARTICLE XI

The Government of the United States agrees to take all appropriate measures to prevent articles imported for consumption within the areas referred to in Article I from passing to any other territory of the rest of the Republic except upon compliance with Panamanian fiscal laws. Whenever it is possible, the provisioning and equipping of the bases and their personnel will be done with products, articles and foodstuffs coming from the Republic of Panama, provided they are available at reasonable prices.

ARTICLE XII

The sites referred to in Article I consist both of lands belonging to the Government of the Republic of Panama and of privately owned lands.

In the case of the private lands, which the Government of Panama shall acquire from the

owners and the temporary use of which shall be granted by it to the Government of the United States, it is agreed that the Government of the United States will pay to the Government of Panama an annual rental of fifty balboas or dollars per hectare for all such lands covered by this Agreement, the Government of Panama assuming all costs of expropriation as well as indemnities and reimbursements for buildings, cultivations, installations, or improvements which may exist within the sites chosen.

In the case of the public lands the Government of the United States will pay to the Government of Panama an annual rental of one balboa or dollar for all such lands covered by this Agreement.

There are expressly excepted the lands situated in the Corregimiento of Río Hato, designated in the attached Memorandum, it being understood that for this entire tract the United States Government will pay to the Government of Panama an annual rental of ten thousand balboas or dollars.

The rentals set out in this Article shall be paid in balboas as defined by the Agreement embodied in the exchange of notes dated March 2, 1936, referred to in Article VII of the treaty or that date between the United States of America and Panama, or the equivalent thereof in dollars, and shall be payable from the date on which the use of the lands by the United States actually began, with the exception of the lands situated in the Corregimiento of Río Hato designated in the attached Memorandum, rental for which shall commence January 1, 1943.

ARTICLE XIII

The provisions of this Agreement may be terminated upon the mutual consent of the signatory parties even prior to the expiration thereof in conformity with Articles I and V above, it being understood also that any of the areas to which this Agreement refers may be evacuated by the United States and the use thereof by the United States terminated prior to that date.

ARTICLE XIV

This agreement will enter into effect when approved by the National Executive Power of Panama and by the National Assembly of Panama.



WINNERS OF THE EXTEMPORE DISCUSSION CONTEST ON INTER-AMERICAN AFFAIRS
VISIT THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

Left to right: Thomas Klink, Pacific University; Theodore Groenke, De Pauw University; Joseph Sterling, University of Oklahoma; L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union; Alan Nichols, National Director of the Discussion Contest; Jack McCombe, Syracuse University; John Lewis, Stetson University; and James J. Rathbun, Northwestern University. In this competition for colleges and universities, sponsored by the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, more than 1,100 debates were held.

*Agreements between the United
States and Nicaragua*

The Nicaraguan Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Mariano Argüello, and the President of the National Bank of Nicaragua, Dr. Jesús Sánchez, recently concluded their visit in Washington, during the course of which negotiations were undertaken relative to cooperation between the United States and Nicaragua. The agreements reached by the two Governments will lead to mutual understanding and benefit.

On April 8, 1942, notes were exchanged providing for the cooperation of the United States in the construction of the Inter-American Highway in Nicaragua, in accordance with the Inter-American Highway Act signed by the President of the United States on December 25, 1941. The exchange of notes provides for the completion of the Nicaraguan portion of the Highway. Nicaragua will assume one-third of the cost of construction and the United States the remaining two-thirds. This provision will permit the completion of the Sebaco-Managua-Diri-

amba section of the Highway as well as its extension to the Honduran and Costa Rican frontiers.

Negotiations were concluded relative to the extension of a line of credit not to exceed \$500,000 in favor of the Banco Nacional de Nicaragua by the Export-Import Bank of Washington.

The Government of the United States assured the Nicaraguan Government that, insofar as the materials are available in the United States, every effort will be made to assist those industries which are vital to the national economy of Nicaragua in obtaining supplies and equipment required for the maintenance of production at normal levels.

Dr. Argüello also discussed, while in Washington, matters of interest to both Governments in relation to continental defense. Agreement was reached regarding the cooperation of the United States in the construction of a highway that will join the Atlantic and Pacific sections of Nicaragua and will at the same time have an important bearing upon the defense of this highly important area.

The Nicaraguan Government also agreed, acting through the Banco Nacional de Nicaragua, to make available for purchase by the Rubber Reserve Company all crude rubber produced in Nicaragua that is available for export.

Finally, the Government of the United States, acting through the Department of Agriculture, agreed to assist the Nicaraguan Government in the establishment of an agricultural demonstration station with a view to increasing Nicaraguan agricultural production, particularly with respect to the development of rubber and abacá (Manila hemp). In order to accomplish this the United States will send a group of experts to Nicaragua.

These agreements mark another milestone in inter-American cooperation.

Trade agreement between Peru and the United States

A trade agreement between the Republic of Peru and the United States was signed at Washington on May 7, 1942, by Dr. David Dasso, Minister of Finance and Commerce of Peru, and the Honorable Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States. The agreement will become effective thirty days after the day of its proclamation by the Presidents of the two countries, or, if the proclamations are not made on the same day, on the thirtieth day following the second one. It will remain in force for a period of two years from its effective date (unless terminated earlier pursuant to certain special provisions), and it will continue indefinitely in force thereafter, subject to termination on six months' notice by either country.

The agreement, designed to improve trade relations between the two countries, provides for reciprocal tariff concessions on specified products covering a goodly portion of the trade between them. The concessions include reductions by each country of existing tariffs on specified products of the other country; the binding of tariffs on certain products against increase; and the binding of other specified commodities on the free list. Like other trade agreements concluded by the United States, this one is based on the principle of unconditional most-favored-nation treatment with respect to customs duties and related matters and it provides assurances against discriminatory import quotas, taxes, foreign purchases, and exchange control measures.

There has been an increase in United States-Peruvian trade in recent years. The Department of State noted that from the substantial figure of \$56,343,000 in 1929, total trade between the two coun-

tries fell off sharply during the depression period to a low of \$7,647,000 in 1932, but by 1939 it had risen to \$33,205,000 and in 1940, stimulated by the war, it increased to \$41,066,000. United States exports to Peru consist primarily of manufactured and processed articles, while imports from Peru are chiefly raw materials. The trade balance between the two countries has consistently been in favor of the United States; during the decade 1931-40, for example, United States exports to Peru averaged \$13,064,000 and imports from Peru \$10,205,000.

The tariff concessions granted by Peru on imports of United States agricultural and industrial products involve 50 items of the Peruvian tariff schedule, 40 of which benefit from reductions in present duties, and 10 of which are bound at existing rates for the life of the agreement. Peruvian imports of the United States products on which concessions were obtained amounted in 1940 to \$7,068,000, or 26 percent of total Peruvian imports from the United States in that year. Of this amount approximately \$5,111,000 represents imports of products which will enjoy duty reductions, while the remainder of \$1,957,000 covers imports of products bound against any tariff increase.

Duty reductions of 50 percent or more, as listed by the *Foreign Commerce Weekly* (May 23, 1942), were obtained on safety razor blades, paraffined cardboard containers for packing butter and assimilated products, dictating machines and parts, bulbs for flashlights and miners' lamps, radio-receiving tubes, specified canned vegetables, and certain dried and canned fruits and nuts. Basic rates were reduced from 8 to 45 percent below existing levels on the following items: hats for men and boys; metal furniture; Douglas fir, pine, and other ordinary woods; plywood; enamel and oil paints; pigmented lacquer;

typewriters and parts; calculating machines and parts; tools and utensils including abrasive paper and cloth; automobile trucks, chassis, and trailers; nonspecified motor vehicle parts; cylinders for dictating machines; dry-cell and storage batteries and plates; radio and telegraph transmitting and receiving apparatus; electric refrigerators and parts; prepared oats; chewing gum; specified cereal flours; canned salmon; canned sardines in tomato sauce; safety razors; and dentifrices.

Existing tariff rates were bound against increase on plate glass; agricultural, stock raising, and mining machinery; sewing machines and parts; radio transmitting tubes; motion picture films, projectors and parts; wheat flour; and certain pharmaceutical specialties.

Other concessions include the binding of wooden railway ties on the free list, the exemption from basic duty of fresh apples, pears, and plums during a specified season, a change in the basis of duty assessment on certain classes of passenger automobiles from gross weight to legal weight, and special arrangements for the temporary entry of motion picture films under bond.

Imports of Peruvian products on which concessions are granted by the United States amounted to \$4,084,000 in 1940, or 26 percent of total United States imports from Peru in that year. Of this amount, \$2,058,000, or more than half, represents products on which the duty has been reduced; \$71,000 represents bindings of existing duties which had been previously reduced in trade agreements with other countries, and \$1,955,000, bindings on the free list.

The products on which reductions in existing rates of duty are accorded by the United States are: pyrethrum or insect flowers, derris, *tube* or *tuba* root, and barbasco or *cube* root other than ground,

advanced in value or condition: coca leaves; bismuth; Spanish cedar, grana-dilla, mahogany, rosewood, and satin-wood, not further manufactured than sawed, and flooring; sugars, tank bottoms, sirups of cane juice, melada, concentrated melada, concrete and concentrated molasses, and all mixtures containing sugar and water; candied or preserved, and ground ginger root; cotton having a staple length of $1\frac{1}{8}$ inches or more; hemp, hemp tow, and hackled hemp; and hair of the alpaca, llama, and vicuña. The more important of these commodities are sugar, long-staple cotton, hair of the alpaca, llama, and vicuña, bismuth, and coca leaves.

The new duty on sugar established by the agreement is equivalent to \$0.9375 per 100 pounds of 96° sugar. This is only half the rate of \$1.875 per 100 pounds established under section 336 of the Tariff Act in connection with the imposition of restrictions on the marketing of sugar in the United States pursuant to the provisions of the Jones-Costigan Act of 1934. Imports of sugar have been subject to quotas under that Act and the Sugar Act of 1937. In accordance with the provisions of title II of the latter Act, quotas on imports of Peruvian sugar were 5,557 short tons, raw value, in 1937; 5,967 short tons in 1938; 5,944 short tons in 1939; and 5,377 short tons in 1940. However, chiefly on account of the fact that certain portions of unfilled full-duty quotas belonging to other foreign countries and to the Philippine Islands were reallocated to Peru in those years, imports of Peruvian sugar amounted to 53,682 short tons, 56,256 short tons, 38,599 short tons, and 13,250 short tons, respectively, during the years 1937-40. In order to permit the utilization during the war emergency of supplies of sugar from areas not provided for or inadequately provided for in the

sugar quotas established under title II of the Sugar Act of 1937, that title was suspended by a proclamation of the President issued on April 13, 1942.

The agreement makes a 50-percent reduction (from 7 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ cents per pound) in the duty on cotton having a staple of $1\frac{1}{8}$ inches or more. The United States has an absolute import quota on long-staple cotton $1\frac{1}{8}$ inches and over but less than $1\frac{1}{16}$ inches, imposed by the President September 20, 1939, pursuant to a finding by the United States Tariff Commission that such cotton was being imported under such conditions and in such quantities as to tend to render ineffective the export-subsidy aspect of the cotton program undertaken by the Soil Conservation and Domestic Allotment Act. Under the trade agreement with Peru the right is reserved by both Governments to maintain or impose quotas in connection with governmental measures designed to control production, market supply, quality, or prices of like domestic articles; but in connection with this item, the Peruvian negotiators requested that an investigation be undertaken to determine whether it would be possible at this time to consolidate all the existing country quotas into a single global quota that would thus allow Peru and other countries to utilize fully the total amount permitted to be imported, and it was agreed by the United States to request the Tariff Commission to make such an investigation.

Long-staple Peruvian cotton is characterized by its uniformity, roughness, and tensile strength, which make it suitable for specialized uses, particularly the manufacture of underwear, part-wool textiles, asbestos, and cotton duck and other strong fabrics, all of which are in great demand in the present war effort. In 1940 it accounted for 58 percent of the value of Peru's total agricultural exports.

In recent years total production has ranged from approximately 360,000 to 380,000 bales of 500 pounds each; of this amount about 10 percent has been consumed by local textile industries. Only a very small percentage of total United States cotton production is long-staple.

Under the Tariff Act of 1930 the duty on alpaca, llama, and vicuña hair was set as follows: in the grease or washed, 34 cents per pound; scoured, 37 cents; on the skin, 32 cents; sorted or matchings, if not scoured, 35 cents. In the new agreement with Peru, these duties are reduced respectively to 18 cents, 21 cents, 16 cents, and 19 cents per pound. These types of hair are produced chiefly in Peru, none being grown in the United States at all. The hair is used in the manufacture of luxury outer wear or is blended with wool in making less expensive specialty weaves of types that cannot be obtained from wool alone.

The duty on coca leaves, which are obtained from a tropical shrub native to Peru and not grown in the United States, is reduced in the agreement from 10 to 5 cents per pound. The leaves are the raw material source of medicinal alkaloid cocaine and they also contain certain other constituents that are utilized in the preparation of certain soft drinks. Peru is the principal source of United States imports of such leaves.

The duty on bismuth, which under the Tariff Act of 1930 was $7\frac{1}{2}$ percent ad valorem, is reduced to $3\frac{3}{4}$ percent ad valorem. Peru is one of the world's largest producers of bismuth and is almost the sole supplier of United States imports of that product. In 1940 total United States imports of bismuth amounted to 124,000 pounds, valued at \$118,000, all of which came from Peru.

Certain import taxes or duties which were reduced by the maximum percentage

permissible under the Trade Agreements Act in trade agreements with other countries are bound against increase in the agreement with Peru. The commodities to which these bindings apply are ground barbasco or *cube* root; flax straw; flax, hackled, including "dressed line," and not hackled; flax tow and flax noils; balsa lumber, rough or planed or dressed on one or more sides; and Spanish cedar, granadilla, mahogany, rosewood, and satinwood lumber, rough or planed or dressed on one or more sides.

The agreement further binds on the free list imports of certain commodities that are produced either not at all in the United States or in quantities that are insufficient to meet domestic demand. The following products are bound on the free list in the agreement with Peru, although they have not been so bound in other agreements: crude pyrethrum or insect flowers; cochineal; tara, a tanning agent; guano; leche Caspi (rubber latex); vanadium ore; and oiticica oil, a drying agent for paints, obtained from the seed of a tree. The following articles, bound on the free list in the agreement with Peru, have also been so bound in other agreements: cinchona and other barks from which quinine may be extracted; coffee, except coffee imported into Puerto Rico; undressed otter skins; crude India rubber; crude gutta balata; crude or unmanufactured barbasco or *cube* root; quinine sulphate and cinchona bark derivatives; raw reptile skins; raw goat and kid skins; underground ginger root, not preserved or candied; tagua nuts; tamarinds; sawed balsa lumber and timber, not further manufactured than planed, tongued, and grooved; and balsa, Spanish cedar, granadilla, mahogany, rosewood, and satinwood, in the log.

The agreement contains a provision for consultation to the fullest possible extent

between the two Governments in regard to all matters affecting the operation of the agreement. To facilitate such consultation, a commission consisting of representatives of each Government shall be established to study the operation of the agreement and to make recommendations regarding the fulfillment of its provisions. It is also provided that if either Government considers that any measure adopted by the other Government, even though it does not conflict with the terms of the agreement, has the effect of nullifying or impairing any object of the agreement or of prejudicing an industry or the commerce of the country, the latter Government shall give sympathetic consideration to any representations or proposals that may be made with a view to effecting a mutually satisfactory adjustment of the matter. If a solution is not reached within thirty days after such proposals or representations are made, the Government which made them shall be free to terminate the trade agreement in whole or in part on thirty days' written notice.

Excepted from application of the agreement are the special advantages granted by the Government of either country to adjacent countries to facilitate frontier traffic, and advantages accorded to any third country as a result of a customs union. There is also included the usual exception relating to special advantages accorded by the United States and its territories and possessions or the Panama Canal Zone to one another or to the Republic of Cuba.

The agreement with Peru is the twenty-fourth to be negotiated by the United States under the provisions of the Trade Agreements Act of 1934, as extended by joint resolutions of Congress approved March 1, 1937, and April 12, 1940, and is the thirteenth to be concluded with another American Republic.

Conferences held in the Americas

During the six-months' period, September 1941—February 1942, a number of international conferences were held in this hemisphere. Four of the American Republics were hosts to a total of six conferences. A brief account of two that met in Chile, two in the United States, one in Cuba, and one in Mexico is given below.

The *Second Inter-American Congress of Municipalities* met in Santiago and Valparaíso, Chile, from September 15 to 21, 1941. Among the resolutions adopted were those on suffrage, recommending that the right to vote and to hold office in municipal affairs be denied to no one on account of sex; on the collection and distribution of municipal statistical information; urban planning, recommending the establishment of basic standards; on public health, including the reconstruction of substandard dwellings, the coordination of public health activities, and social welfare measures for municipal employees; and on cultural matters such as the fostering of inter-American friendship through municipal activities, civic education, and the encouragement of democratic principles and practices.

A special session of the *International Labor Conference* was held in New York and Washington from October 27 to November 5, 1941. As at the regular annual conferences, provision was made for tripartite representation of the governments, members of the International Labor Organization, and of employers' and workers' organizations in each country. Because the world situation prevented many countries from being represented, no action was taken on formal conventions to be presented to the member nations for ratification.

The Conference was called "in the belief that social justice and social security and the basic elements of economic democracy are not luxuries to be thought of only when the stern business of fighting is settled, but that they are, instead, the essence of the conflict and the very stuff for which free men fight." Its main purpose was to discuss the part the Organization should play in post-war reconstruction and the methods of securing the effective cooperation, in peace and in war, of governments, management, and workers.

Thirty-three nations, members of the Organization, sent delegates. The American countries represented were Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Mexico, Panama, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela; Costa Rica, although not a member, sent an observer.

The central resolution adopted by the Conference provides for the contribution of the Organization to immediate postwar activities, which include "the feeding of peoples in need, the reconstruction of the devastated countries, the provision and transportation of raw materials and capital equipment necessary for the restoration of economic activity, the reopening of trade outlets, the resettlement of workers and their families under circumstances in which they can work in freedom and security and hope, the changing over of industry to the needs of peace, the maintenance of employment, and the raising of standards of living throughout the world." In compliance with this resolution, the Governing Body of the Organization chose from its own membership an emergency committee to act for it between regular sessions; the committee will not only provide for effective functioning through the war period, but also assume responsibility for planning the I. L. O. reconstruction measures, enlisting expert

assistance, and cooperating with other governmental, intergovernmental, and private agencies.

Other resolutions related to the protection of seamen; the improvement of social-economic conditions in the Americas; representation of management and workers on Government agencies concerned with public policy affecting the interests of these groups; the development of plans for dealing with international transportation problems and with world textile problems; and economic cooperation among the free countries of the world as a basis for postwar reconstruction and the establishment of peace.

The *Second American Conference of National Committees of Intellectual Cooperation* was held at Habana from November 15 to 22, 1941. Nineteen of the American republics were represented, and extraofficial national commissions affiliated with the International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation in Paris sent delegates. The Pan American Union and other official and private organizations sent observers.

The most important resolutions had to do with the establishment in America of an international center of intellectual cooperation. A committee of seven members, representing Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, the United States and Uruguay, was appointed to study the question.

Other resolutions adopted by the Conference related to democracy and liberty and to the practical application of intellectual cooperation. Topics under the latter heading included literary and scientific competitions; educational films; the exchange of students and professors; interchange of books and other publications; art exhibitions; the publication of a collection of masterpieces of American literature; and cultural radio broadcasts.

The problem of copyright and the protection of intellectual property rights, especially in its international aspects, was discussed at length, and four resolutions were passed, all designed to aid the intellectual worker. One of these was translated almost immediately—on November 22—into action, by the formation of the Inter-American Federation of Societies of Authors and Composers (see BULLETIN for March 1942).

A special feature of the Conferences of Commissions of Intellectual Cooperation is the "conversations," which give opportunity for informal discussion of topics of timely interest. The general subject of the conversations at Habana was "America in the Face of the World Crisis," and more than 50 intellectuals of America and Europe took part in them. From the discussions arose the "Declaration of Habana," which condemns totalitarian conquest, recommends American solidarity, expresses sympathy for subjugated nations, declares the necessity of aiding the intellectuals of countries that have maintained their independence, and seconds the recommendation of the Conference to establish a center for united action.

The *First Pan American Congress of Mining Engineering and Geology* was held in Santiago and Valparaíso, Chile, from January 15 to 23, 1942. The Congress discussed particularly mining; geology; fuels; ore dressing and ore concentration; metallurgy; problems connected with nitrate; mining policy, legislation, and economy; and mining education. Field trips arranged for the delegates occupied several days and gave the visitors opportunity to inspect mines and technological institutions in the country. The final session was held at the Federico Santa María Technical University. The outstanding result of the Conference was the creation of the Pan American Institute

of Mining Engineering and Geology, which will have its headquarters in Santiago, Chile.

The *17th Inter-American Astrophysical Congress* met at Puebla, Mexico, during the period February 17-25, 1942, with noted astronomers and astrophysicists from the various American nations in attendance.

The formal opening of the Congress, when an inaugural address was given by President Ávila Camacho of Mexico, served as the occasion for the dedication of Mexico's new National Astrophysical Observatory at Tonanzintla, near Puebla. The Observatory, together with its fine new telescope which was recently mounted and made ready for use, was particularly hailed by astrophysicists, inasmuch as the latitude, altitude, and clear skies at Tonanzintla all favor observation and study of the Milky Way. Professor Harlow Shapley of Harvard stated that not since ancient times has there been an observatory so well adapted for study of that part of the heavens. At Tonanzintla about 90 percent of the sky is visible, while at the Harvard and Lick Observatories only about 60 percent may be studied.

During the week's meetings numerous papers and studies of great interest and importance were presented by the delegates.

The closing session was held on February 25 at the National Preparatory School in Mexico City. The feeling prevailed among the scientists in attendance that the Congress had opened new cultural contacts with Mexico that would undoubtedly be extended to other American countries, especially through the establishment of still other observatories where scientists of the United States and the Latin American republics may cooperate in study and research.

The *Fifth Convention of the Inter-American Bibliographical and Library Association* took place in the auditorium of the National Archives, Washington, D. C., February 20 and 21, 1942. The two-day session was occupied principally in the presentation of papers and round-table discussions of archival needs and bibliographical problems in Latin America and of inter-American library activities. A number of resolutions were adopted covering, among other points, recommendations for the preparation of bibliographical guides to Latin American reference works and to United States and Latin American history, congratulations on the establishment of new libraries in some of the Latin American countries, the recent or impending publication of several Latin American bibliographies, and the stimulation of translation programs.

Recent developments in fishery science

Under the direction of R. H. Fiedler, Chief of the Division of Fishery Industries, Fish and Wild Life Service, Department of the Interior and in cooperation with the Department of State and the Office of Inter-American Affairs of the United States a survey is to be made of fisheries resources in the Caribbean area for possible additions to wartime food supplies.

The survey will provide the governments of the countries concerned factual information on potential Caribbean sources of increased fish supplies. The information,

in addition to being of value in war-time, should lead to the development of fisheries industries and provide employment.

The survey, which will also include the study of marketing facilities, was to begin in April and be conducted along the coast lines of Puerto Rico, the British West Indies, Venezuela, Colombia, Central America, Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic.

In connection with the development of fisheries industries the Fish and Wildlife Service of the United States Department of the Interior is offering fellowships in fishery science to be awarded to applicants from other American republics. The fellowships will be of the training-in-research type and will include instruction or practical training in some branch of fishery science. Fellows will be assigned to work in fish hatcheries, fishery laboratories, or offices of the Fish and Wildlife Service and will also be afforded opportunities for instruction and research at colleges or universities selected by that agency.

Low-cost houses in La Paz

The Workers Insurance and Savings Fund has started the building of seventy low-cost houses in one of the suburbs of La Paz. Preference in buying these houses will be given to public or private employees who have some savings. The next to be considered will be heads of families who have steady work; they will pay rent for a fixed number of years, at the end of which time they will receive title to the property.

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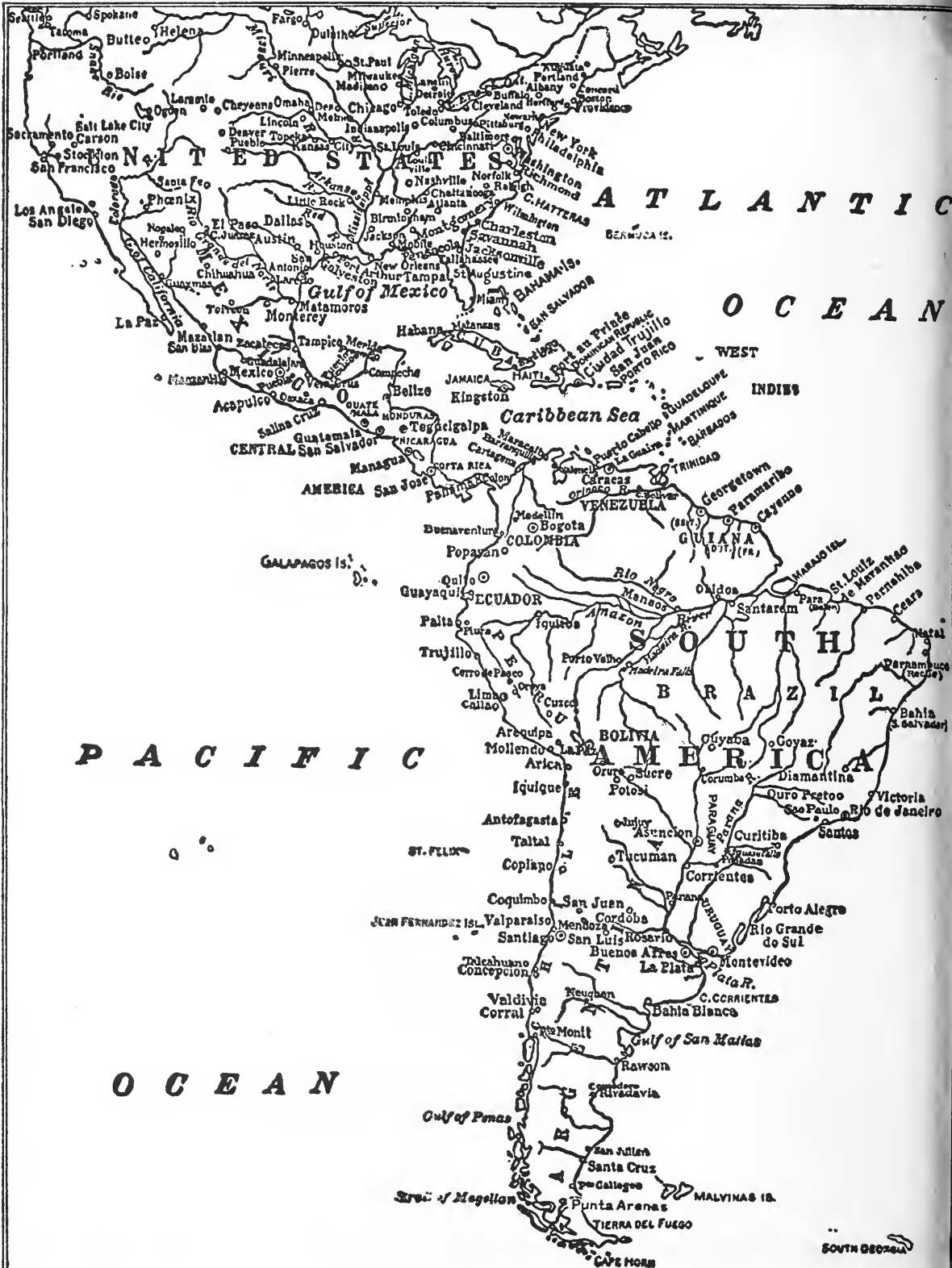
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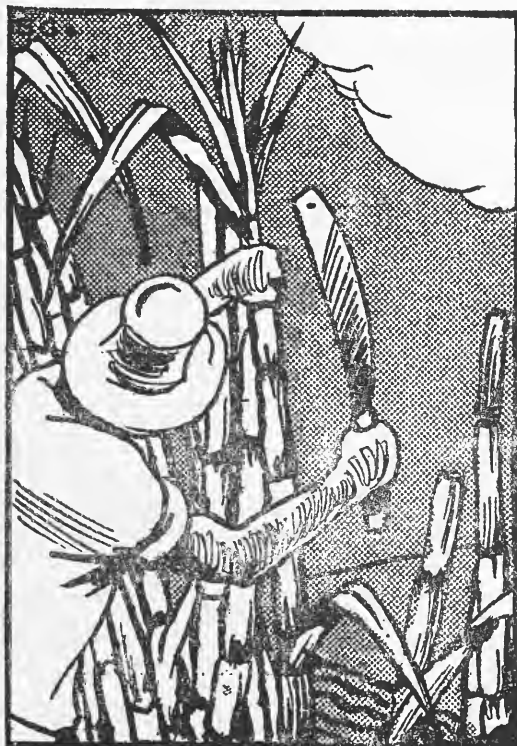


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CUTTING SUGAR CANE

AUGUST

1942

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

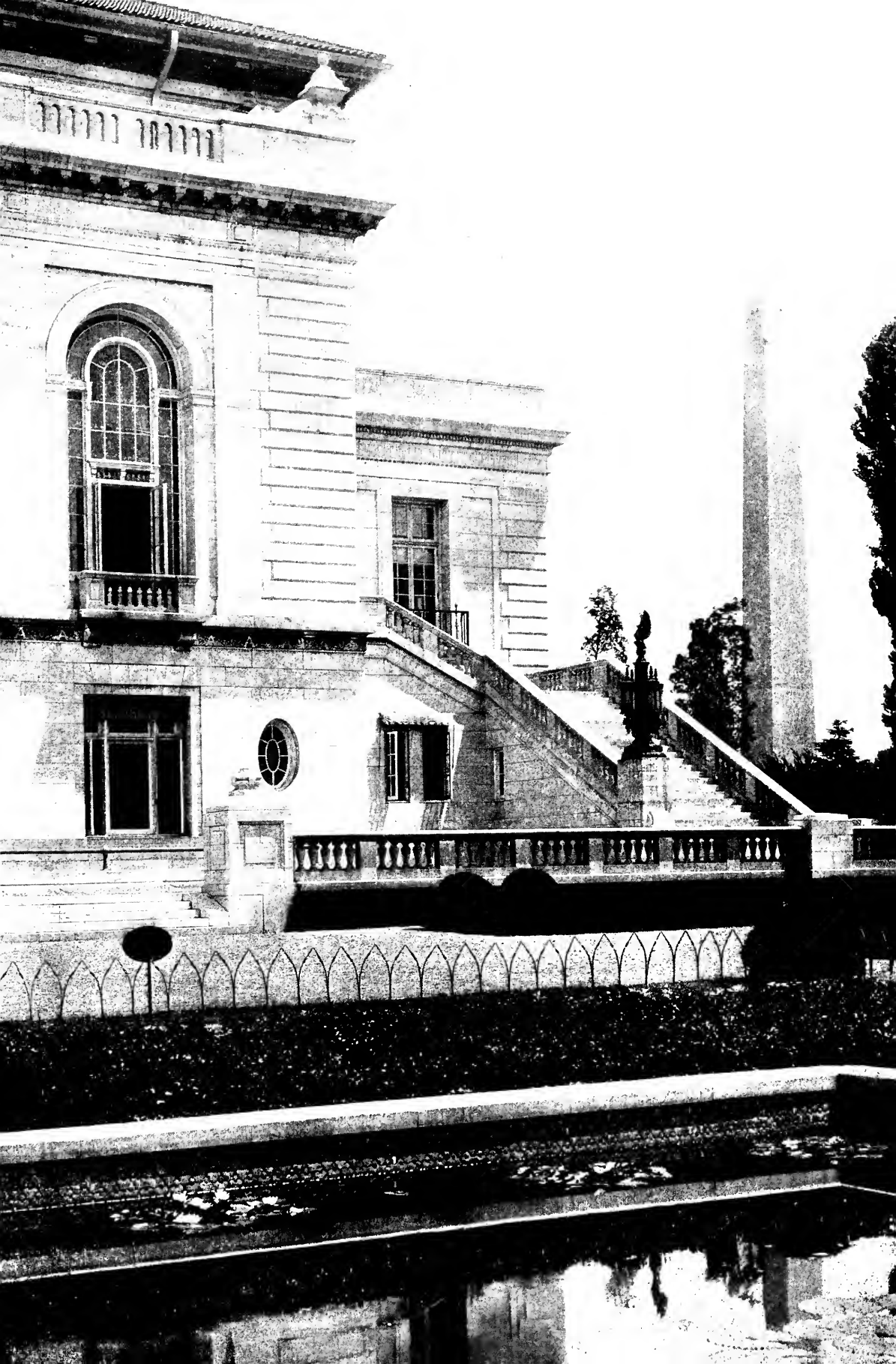
and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

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The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

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The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: WASHINGTON MONUMENT FROM THE GARDEN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION





Photograph by Larsen

PART OF THE MAIN SQUARE (PLAZA MAYOR), MEXICO CITY

This view of the City Hall is taken from the Cathedral. The present building was erected in 1720-24, after the previous one had been practically demolished in the riots of June 8, 1692, induced by the scarcity of grain, its high price, and the consequent hunger, disease, and unrest.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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AUGUST 1942

Earning and Living in Colonial Mexico City

I. Prices and Profits

CHESTER L. GUTHRIE

Part I

BASIC to a knowledge of a people's history is an appreciation of its daily life. Such an understanding should include all phases of normal living which might influence the actions and thinking of the locality, city, nation, or race under consideration. From the lightheartedly and thoughtlessly accepted refrain of the streets to the plodding prose of the every-day job, all activities and contacts help to mould the thoughts and reactions of men, and to place the indelibly characteristic stamp of the epoch upon the

pages of history. Closest to most people of all the problems and influences which shape their lives are those which are concerned with making a living.

Colonial Hispanic America had its life and customs which were of primary importance in shaping its destiny. As a typical place and a typical period for the study of these underlying and primary factors, few choices could be better than Mexico City in the seventeenth century. The capital of New Spain had a well developed political, social, and economic life, and the seventeenth century was a period of comparative constancy in the development of the city.

In a study of the economic phase of life in colonial Mexico City, it should be borne in mind that almost three generations had

This paper, under the title "Colonial Economy: Trade, Industry and Labor in Seventeenth Century Mexico City," originally appeared in "Revista de Historia de América," No. 7, diciembre de 1939, published by the Instituto Panamericano de Geografía e Historia, Mexico City. It is reprinted here by permission of the author and editor. The scholarly footnotes, which gave historical sources and additional details, have been omitted for lack of space.

passed since the founding of the city by the conquistadores. The period of conquest and the rebuilding and the reorganization of the city was over. Society had become adjusted to the new changes, and, at least by the first quarter of the century, almost all of the significant economic institutions had been formulated. Markets and market regulations, guilds and labor relations, customs and economic patterns had been established and defined. A state approaching a "normal life" had been developed; so for a century, until the reforms of the Bourbons, Mexico City typified the height of the old Spanish colonial regime, and worked itself deeper and deeper into its own special groove.

The size and complexity of Mexico City during the period was indicated by its consumption of certain basic foodstuffs. According to an estimate made in the middle of the century, 170,000 sheep, 12,000 cattle, 30,000 swine, 220,000 *fanegas*¹ of maize, and 180,000 *fanegas* of flour were sold each year. In the case of meat, these estimates could be only conjectural at best, for about one-half of that consumed in the capital was sold outside of the government *carnicerías*, that is to say, meat markets. Fruit, vegetables, fish, and fowl were consumed in large amounts as well. Such a market required a very well developed economic system.

Currency was plentiful and of sufficient denominations, for the most part, to facilitate commerce. There was, however, a lamentable lack of small fractional coins with which to make minor purchases, and it was necessary to use such substitutes as cocoa beans. Gold was minted in sixteen-, eight-, four-, and two-peso pieces. Silver was formed into pesos, half-pesos, quarter-pesos, reales, and half-reales. A real was one-eighth part of a peso. In Mexico City, 16,000 pesos were struck off

a day at the end of the seventeenth century. Besides this basic coinage, there were a number of gold pesos of different values called pesos of *oro común*, *minas*, and other such terms to designate certain finenesses.

Almost every article of commerce in colonial Mexico City was carefully supervised as to price, weight, and often, amount and quality. According to law, in each city a judge and a regidor, named by the city council, were to hold hearings on the price of articles, and to fix a scale which was to be adhered to by all traders. Cost was kept in mind in order that a moderate profit might be made. Especially were foodstuffs watched. Rulings by the officials in charge of the numerous trades and industries went even so far as to insist that salt should be bought by taverns, bakeries, and large producers only through the regular channels, so that the supply might more equitably be distributed. A fairness both to the consuming public and to business was the goal toward which the laws were aimed.

Constant alertness was necessary to carry out such a laudable program. It was the common practice of the richer merchants to attempt, if possible, to obtain a monopoly of some article. The most dangerous to corner was grain, for a bumper crop might upset all calculations, and also, if the move should be successful, the people's ire might rise with prices to a point where either official action or mob violence might ensue. By buying through third parties at attractive prices, success, especially if a few government officials proved friendly, was possible. Profits then were quick and large.

For controlling merchandising in general, an organization was fostered among the merchants called the *consulado*. It performed many of the services for the merchants that the guilds did for industry.

¹ A *fanega* equalled 1.6 bushels.



Reproduced from "México a través de los Siglos"

A VIEW OF THE SOUTHEAST CORNER OF THE PLAZA MAYOR OF MEXICO CITY IN THE EARLY 18th CENTURY

The picture shows the Viceroy's quarters as rebuilt after the riot of 1692 and a portion of the Royal University facing on the Plaza del Volador.

Established in 1603, the official name of the *consulado* was *Universidad de los Mercaderes* (Corporation of the Merchants). The patron saint was Nuestra Señora de la Concepción. A chapel, seal, and tribunal were boasted by the *consulado*, and the voting membership chose electors each year to name men to the offices of prior, consul, and deputies. To hold these jobs, the candidate was required to be married, a resident, honorable, of good character, and to have at least a fortune of 20,000 ducats. Other positions, such as the *alguacil*, that is, *constable*, porter, receiver, lawyer, counselor, and proctor were named by the consul. Prices were set in *juntas* at the proposal of the prior.

Most of the trade centered around the stalls in the market of the Plaza Mayor. The number of these shops, or *cajones* as they were called, was very great. In 1686 there were said to have been 323 in the plaza. During the century this number never varied far from that figure. The amount was so great even in 1600 that they had become a serious obstruction to traffic; so the city council had to order the shops to be placed in rows because coaches were kept from entering the plaza in many streets.

By far the most beneficial and fundamental of all of the regulated markets, as far as the masses of the people were concerned, were the grain and the meat

markets. The former, or *alhóndiga* as it was called, rendered perhaps the greatest service of all. In an era when scarcity, not abundance, was the great problem to be faced, the consuming public needed all possible protection. It was thought that, if left alone, certain of the more rapacious monopolists would soon raise the cost of the fundamental necessities to a point where it would become impossible for any but the well-to-do and the rich to live comfortably, or to be sure, at all.

During the bad crop seasons of the 1580's it was realized that some means had to be found to supply the public with sufficient quantities of grain at a reasonable price to fill the normal needs. Viceroy Enríquez suggested to his successor that an *alhóndiga* ought to become a permanent part of the administration. In 1583 the idea had been acted upon by the Spanish crown, with the result that the necessary laws and regulations were formulated. A place was established where farmers could bring their grain for sale, and people could obtain supplies.

Over the *alhóndiga* was to be an official called the *alcaide*. He was to be heavily bonded, see that accounts were kept, and was to live at the *alhóndiga*. While he could not engage in the trade himself, still under his supervision all grain was to be sold, and nowhere else could the traffic be carried on. Everyone bringing grain to the *alhóndiga* had to swear that he was selling his own product, and not something which he had bought to be sold for profit. Also, farmers were not allowed to store their product there for more than twenty days, and if at the end of that time they still had something left, they were forced to sell at whatever price the residue would bring. In case a farmer happened also to be a baker, he had to declare how much grain he had, and also how much he had harvested, as well as how much he had

used. In this way bakers could not avoid the rulings by using farming as a means to obtain an undue supply of grain. Then too, bakers were not to buy until after high mass, and then only in amounts sufficient for one or two days' operations. Finally, any arms brought to the *alhóndiga* were to be confiscated, and officials were always to be present.

From time to time additional regulations were added as the necessity arose. In 1609 an attempt was made to put the collection and distribution of grain upon a more efficient basis. In the first place, no one was allowed to store his maize with that of the government without forfeiting it. The officials were supposed to be present when the maize was received. There were two books of record—one for receipts and another for distribution. In that for receipts, the date of each load of grain was recorded, together with a statement as to whether it was destined for alms or not, and if so, under what conditions. The farmer or tributary Indian received a copy. In the other book was recorded each day the amount of grain sold, and what sum of money had resulted from the activities. Both accounts were signed by the receiving officials.

All money taken in was placed in a chest. Two different locks and keys were necessary to open the chest, and one key was in the possession of each of the two officials responsible. Thus both had to be present whenever the strong box was opened. Each day the money received was locked away in this manner, and the amount was recorded over the signature of the officials in a book kept in the chest for that purpose. No one was to receive more than one *fanega* of maize at one purchase. From the government store, first the poor received distribution, and later the hospitals and monasteries.

Sales by private individuals were just

as carefully regulated. At exactly nine o'clock in the morning, the warden of the *alhóndiga* distributed the measures to the waiting vendors. Also, anyone who came later was to receive measures as well. For this the alcaide, or warden, took no payment. Sales continued freely although not exceeding, in price, the maximum set. If after the first part of the day all of the supply had not been sold, the *diputado*, who was another one of the supervising officials, was to decree that further trading was to be limited in price by the maximum during the hours just preceding, or else, in case it happened to be lower, at the opening price for the second part of the day. No store of maize or barley was to be kept back in order to raise the price. In this way it was hoped to eliminate many of the abuses of speculators in raising the cost of grain.

Conditions at the *alhóndiga* were not always of the best. It was reported in 1619 that water from the surrounding houses drained through the patio of the market. In fact, repairs were constantly asked for by the alcaides throughout the period. Also, there was no storehouse in which to place the flour and grain during the rainy season, which of course caused a loss of the product and a rotting of the sacks. Consequently, the farmers were slow to bring any large amounts to the *alhóndiga*, with the result that a scarcity was felt.

It was suggested further in 1619 that since a new alcaide was about to be appointed, that he be forbidden to rope off any section of the corridor for the purpose of engaging in games of horsemanship, or for other similar employment. Also, he should keep the patio clean so that it would be easy at all time to unload flour and grain. Furthermore, it was asked that the alcaide be instructed to live an upright life, allowing neither games nor other unseemly entertainment in the *alhóndiga*

or in his quarters, nor should he keep in his company any woman of questionable reputation. Finally, certain repairs and improvements were suggested, such as enlarging the patio and boarding up the holes in the main gate, for animals were entering at night and were tearing up the grain sacks. The city took all the points under advisement, promising to correct the evils, and appointed a committee to investigate the advisability of the repairs and changes. Minor things, such as the checking and replacement of faulty scales, were often brought to the attention of the city council.

The provisioning of the public granary and market was effected largely from the valley of Mexico. There were three harvest periods: that of June called *riego*, that is *irrigated*; that of October called *temporal*, *rainy season*; and that of early spring, sowed on the mountain sides, was termed *aventura*, that is, *hazardous*. These were for wheat. Maize was planted from March to May, bringing in its harvest during the summer. All crops and tribute for fourteen leagues around Mexico City were designed for the *alhóndiga*. In time of famine, however, maize and wheat were sometimes brought from much greater distances.

As an influence upon the price of grain, the *alhóndiga* served a wholesome purpose by keeping the price down. Usually sales of the public stock were made on Saturday, except in times of emergency. While prices, in spite of all regulations, might range relatively high during most of the week, when the government grain was placed on the market there was often a sharp decline. Sometimes quite a different result would come about when there was an overabundance through heavy crops. Then the *alhóndiga* might become entirely empty of public supply, for with prices well below the minimum which the

government strove to maintain, the tributes were taken instead in specie. Furthermore, if grain were accepted, there was danger of loss to the state, because no one would buy at the figure set for the public sales, and therefore there was danger of the grain spoiling.

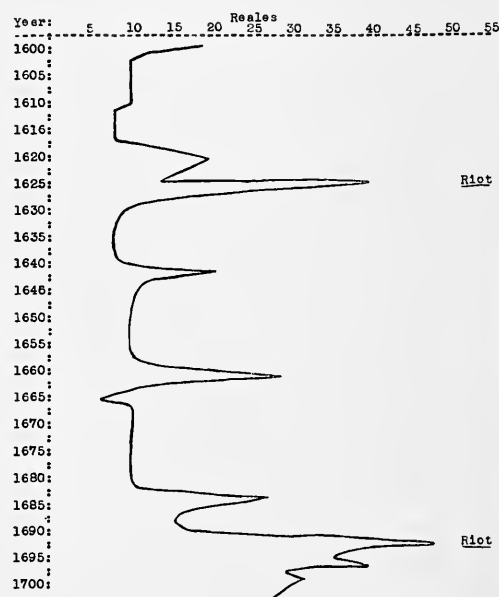
The importance as well as the result of the *alhóndiga* can be shown by the rise and fall in the price of maize. Usually the figure ranged within a point or two of a normal level of ten reales a *fanega*, although in times of plenty the price might drop considerably. Then, almost invariably, the government would relax its restrictions and allow its supply to dwindle into nothingness. Soon would come bad crops again, and there would be neither a smoothly functioning *alhóndiga* nor an ample supply of government grain. Consequently, market crises would occur which caused the poor of the city no little suffering, and the viceregal administration no little uneasiness.

At the beginning of the century, maize brought the rather high price of eighteen reales. Later in the year of 1600, the government took a hand, and succeeded in forcing the price down to twelve reales. This marked the beginning of the government's direct participation as a trader in the market. By the next year there was a sufficient supply of maize so that the price in the open market was ten reales, or two reales under the official figure at which the administration sold its supply; consequently, the government was forced to reduce to the same price.

Ten reales was maintained rather easily for the next few years until 1607, when a bad crop year forced the government to buy quite heavily, and resell at a loss, in order to keep the price of maize down to the official figure. This same condition was repeated in 1609. However, by the next year, good crops had forced the

market price down to eight and nine reales, which again made the official price too high. This continued until 1618, by which time the government had ceased its operations to stabilize prices as an active trader in the market, and never again, except in times of emergency, did the administration engage extensively in buying and selling maize, but rather maintained a supervising capacity over the market through the regulations of the *alhóndiga*. In 1618 the price of maize had risen to twelve reales, and by 1620, which was reported to have been a bad year, the price was up to twenty reales.

In the next period, ending with the riot of 1624, maize rose to a new high for the century. At first, with the arrival of a new viceroy, the Marqués de Gelves, the government was able to obtain a reduction, first to eighteen reales and then to



Graph by the author

PRICES OF MAIZE IN MEXICO CITY DURING THE 17th CENTURY

fourteen reales. After that the administration, advised that there was a sufficient supply of maize in the market, withdrew once more from active participation, and the price immediately rose to forty and, at times, even to fifty reales. The new high prices helped to bring on the riot of 1624, which was a veritable revolution in size and intensity.

For the next two generations there were three times when the price of maize rose to high levels, but for the most part, it remained at ten reales or less. For a number of years the price of maize averaged from eight to nine reales a *fanega*, but by 1641, a great drought was felt in the country, and the price of maize rose to twenty reales. By the next year, the viceroy, Palafox, took a strong hand in the matter, and through the *alhóndiga*, the market price was once more forced down. After that there was another period of normal prices until the year 1661, when a severe winter again forced the price of maize up, this time to twenty-nine reales. From 1662 to 1684 prices were again normal, with the price of maize falling at one time to as low as six reales. In 1684 and 1685 another drought was suffered, which brought the price up to twenty-seven reales. By prompt governmental action, this was reduced to twenty reales, and for a while after that, normal prices were again approached.

By 1691 another major market crisis was reached. Continued rains and a blight ruined crops. As a consequence, maize rapidly rose from twenty to twenty-four reales, and by the next year ranged from forty to forty-eight reales, from which point it was kept from going any higher because of governmental intervention. The scarcity continued through another bloody riot in 1692 until the new crops brought relief. Four years later the price

advanced again to forty reales, but the good crops which followed brought the price down again. Two years later, 1698, there was another period of scarcity, when the price of maize rose to thirty-two reales, and after that the century ended with the price of maize once more on the decline.

Second only to the grain market were the *carnicerías*, as the public controlled meat markets were called. The basis for the regulations of the *carnicerías* was not the same as that for the *alhóndiga*, for the *carnicerías* were in the hands of a private individual, who was therefore given a large monopoly of the trade. His prices, however, were determined by a vote of the city council, and he was required to supply the demand of the city, and to give good and honest service. Thus, close governmental control was possible without actual governmental participation. At first there were but three *carnicerías* open: *Carnicería Mayor*, Santa Catalina, and Vera Cruz. Later those of Santa Inés, *Alcaicería*, San Martín, and San Juan were opened.

The basis for the meat trade was the pastoral industry. This was in a fair way to descend into chaos before the opening of the seventeenth century, and before strict governmental regulations could be applied. Soon after the conquest, cattle began to fill the ranges until they became so numerous that they were valued at little more than the labor of killing and transporting them. As a consequence, a large and flourishing trade in hides sprang up with Europe, and prospered so greatly that for a time cattle were killed only for their hides. The meat was left to spoil. Soon the industry became so widespread that it threatened to annihilate the herds, and bring distress to New Spain. Laws were then promulgated to the effect that no one was to kill beef without a permit from the viceroy. With that came a sta-

bilization of the cattle industry, and a swift rise in prices of beef from about twenty pounds for a real to around eight pounds for a real. The threat of a dearth in meat was, however, averted, and by 1673 the herds were again sufficiently numerous. Such was the reason for the rapid price changes at the beginning of the century, as well as the unfailing supply of meat for the period, except for a short time around 1605.

Because of the difficulties attendant upon the shortage in 1605 and 1606, the need of reform was thrown into a glaring light. It was found that the service was inefficient in its organization, and meat was not being sold in quantities small enough for the poor. Also, it was discovered that the servants of the great, such as the viceroy, members of the Inquisition, and *oidores* of the audiencia, were getting preference over other people. In order to check such abuses as these, and many others as well, two inspectors were named for each *carnicería*, instead of one as formerly was the case. Also, the inspectors were given three months to serve, rather than the usual one month, for in this way the officials were able to become better acquainted with the situation. With these regulations and rules looking for honest weight and better service, the *carnicerías* were made to function smoothly for the public welfare.

An account of the meat trade for the opening months of 1611 was given preparatory to asking for permission to raise prices. The report listed cost and sale prices. For 1,207 head of cattle, 8,449 pesos were paid—a cost of seven pesos each. Sheep had been bought at ten and one-half reales each, or 7,286 animals for 9,582 pesos and seven reales, which made a total of 18,021 pesos and seven reales. Sales, however, in spite of including many items other than just flesh, were not so successful. The beef brought 6,076 pesos,

while the tongues and viscera of the cattle brought 94 pesos more. The hides sold for 2,414 pesos. The sheep were disposed of at 8,379 and one real for the meat, 166 pesos and six reales for viscera, fifty pesos for skins, and 450 pesos for the wool, of which 200 arrobas² were sold for eighteen reales an arroba. This brought the total up to 17,629 pesos and seven reales, or just 392 pesos less than cost. When this was added to administration expenses, the total was held to be a loss of 2,670 pesos for the year up to April 28, 1611. To be sure, the *carnicerías* seldom operated at a loss, but these figures presented an interesting index as to the development of the industry.

The greatest difficulty experienced by the *carnicerías* was the large amount of unlicensed trade in meat which went on elsewhere. It was a practice to bring cattle and sheep to the city slaughterhouse, or *rastro* as it was called; or even to the outskirts of the city, and then to sell the animals alive in order to avoid the tax for slaughter. Also, it was customary for petty merchants to bring in meat displayed on wooden racks on the backs of horses. Such meat was sold by the piece, not by the weight. Much of the business was diverted also by the two meat shops which were allowed to run despite governmental regulations. These were found in the palace of the archbishop and in the palace of the Marqués del Valle.

Considered and treated as separate from the *carnicerías*, but also worthy of notice were the pork dealers. Their importance lay in the fact that they supplied the city with lard. According to law, the pork dealers had to come to the plaza to sell their wares and then were required to observe the price limit fixed by the government. The practice arose, however, of selling the lard in the private homes of the merchants for a very high price, and

² An arroba equalled approximately 25 pounds.

not bringing it to market where the magistrates could see that the law was enforced.

Among the other public markets worthy of note was the *Baratillo*, or thieves' market. This market during its checkered career occupied many places in the city, but in the seventeenth century it was located in the main plaza itself. There, goods which had been stolen and carefully disguised were sold at bargain prices, in spite of regulations contrary to such practices.

For the purpose of buying and selling negro slaves there was a specially designated market place. Such traffic was considered an unpleasant but necessary part of the city's economic life. One of the most objectionable features to the people of Mexico City was the fact that the newly arrived slaves might bring infectious diseases with them, and for that reason there usually was some agitation for the removal of the slave market from the city. At one time, one of the city dumps was cleaned up as a location for the slave market, and canopies ordered in order to protect the human merchandise and the dealers from the effects of the sun and rain. It was under such circumstances that the slave auctioneer plied his trade in the capital of New Spain.

As was to be expected, of course, Mexico City had its horse and mule market, for the horse was one of the greatest passions of the colonial Mexican. Nevertheless, the problems concerned with horse trading were highly complicated, with many a suggestion of the type of practices which have placed a special meaning on the phrase "horse trading." For the purposes of better control, the business was given over to the usual government monopolist, who, as in the case of a certain Juan Franco in 1621, was likely to have his difficulties. Juan Franco paid 950 pesos for a two-year control of the market.

However, as soon as the enterprise got well under way, two important personages, who lived in the neighborhood chosen by Juan Franco as the center for his business, ordered him to move on with his noisy and noisome undertaking, or to be prepared to meet the pressure and unpleasantness which could be brought to bear against him. Juan Franco moved. Next time, he chose a neglected dumping ground, which he had cleaned up for his trading site. Again an unneighborly neighbor who was very important threatened him if he remained at his new place of business. Consequently, Juan Franco, by then almost bankrupt, turned in desperation to the city council for relief from his tormentors. He was rewarded. The city council ordered that a portion of the Plaza Mayor near the cathedral be set aside for the horse and mule market, so that it could have a permanent location, and also so that some of the unsavory practices might be curbed.

In addition to those already mentioned there were a number of other markets and market places. The fish market with its strong odors caused many complaints. Also some of the schools and religious institutions had their own markets, which were important sources of revenue for those establishments. Furthermore, there were several purely Indian markets which, together with the Plaza Mayor, the Plaza del Volador, and similar locations made the city a busy trading center.

Difficulties in controlling trade in the city were illustrated in a case which involved the taverns. In 1619 the innkeepers complained to the viceroy about their treatment by the city. They claimed that the regulating official was in the habit of visiting them very often, sometimes two or three times a week, without any complaints having been filed against them. Since it was the custom of the official to

come with his staff, the result was that the fees and the petty stealing on the part of the magistrate's retinue, cost eight, ten, and sometimes more pesos a week. Furthermore, although the taverns might sell wood, charcoal, candles, and many other things, they were forbidden to sell fruit. It was pointed out that since fruit was often completely gone in the plaza between ten and eleven in the morning, many of the poor, who did not always have money so early in the day, were forced to forego the benefits of the food—and of course incidentally the taverns lost the possible profits. Hence, it was requested that permission be given to sell fruit in the taverns. Prices could be fixed each month, by placing the list over the door of one of the shops in the Plaza del Volador. The viceroy sent the petitions to the city council for decision.

Later the council reported back. As for the illegal visits of the official, such a complaint was without justification. In the first place, the taverns were at fault, for they sold ham, bread, candles, and other goods in the list of those permitted without observing the prices set by the government. They also perpetrated frauds in weights and quantities. Surprise and night visits were necessary to check the evil, for the shop keepers were in the habit of having spies watch for the judges in order that illegal practices could be safely hidden. Furthermore, no money had been taken except in fines.

On the whole, however, the viceroy sided with the innkeepers. Permission was given to sell almost all of the articles which had been mentioned in the petition. Maize, wood, charcoal, candles, ham, bread, sugar, honey, green and dried fruit, cacao, wine, vinegar, olive oil, olives, cheese, vegetables, fish, lard, and pork were included in the list. The only requirements were that the proprietors

refrain from buying supplies until after twelve o'clock noon, or selling before one o'clock, and that the regulations as to price, quantity, and quality be obeyed. Prices were fixed for green fruit each morning, and for olives, dried fruit, fish, lard, cheese, sugar, and other such items each month. Bread prices were determined every three months. Regulations for the taverns were posted each Monday in an accustomed place in the Plaza del Volador. Moderate profits were guaranteed. All Spaniards and others who brought fruit in for sale were restricted in their operations to the Plaza del Volador or to the Plaza Mayor. Also they were required to show written testimony that the purchases had been within ten leagues of the city. Indians, however, could sell anywhere they pleased without paying any heed to the numerous regulations, as long as they were acting in good faith and not for some enterprising Spaniard.

Most of the petty trading in the city was done by the natives. This type of business was quite extensive. Fruit, vegetables, flowers, and cooked foods were brought to the squares in the city to be sold by the Indians. An interesting example of one such trader was a certain Indian spinster called Clara María. She lived in the outskirts of the city, near the aqueduct and towards Chapultepec. Each day she took her fruit and other articles of trade to the plaza, where she was relatively successful in her selling operations.

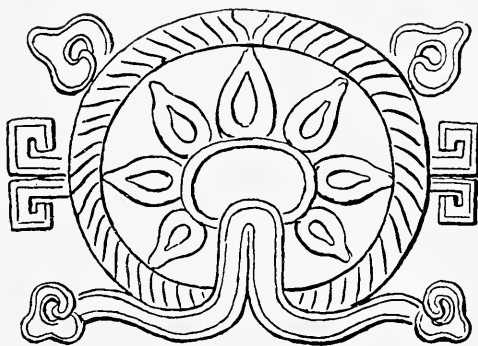
Eventually the canny Clara María, by careful thrift, acquired considerable wealth for one of her position, and was able to build a few small houses. Since her home was along one of the popular routes for afternoon strolls, one day some priests, who happened by, stopped in to see her, and suggested that she found a small convent so as to have a church in the neighborhood. Doña Clara, as she became

known, was favorably impressed by the persuasive padres, and did turn over one of her buildings for the use of some friars. After that Doña Clara became quite the great lady, keeping the church in repair and providing it with the necessary equipment, such as altar cloths and other similar items.

For ten years Doña Clara prospered, then one day she fell in love with and married a mulatto. Her husband promptly, and with apparent ease, exhausted Doña Clara's small fortune, leaving, upon his death, the erstwhile market girl destitute and starving. Doña Clara's monastery, however, proved to be a good investment, for the brothers cared for her in

her old age, and when she died, they gave her a funeral befitting one of the nobility.

Many other Indians gained a livelihood by one type or another of trading. Some hunted ducks on the lake. Others gathered grass for horses. Others collected flies, ants, and worms to be sold as birdfeed to the rich, while still others made a brownish salt from the saline Lake Texcoco. These and many other occupations, such as making silk floss for the great silk merchants, were followed by the natives. There was even a record of an Indian selling a street to a Spaniard! However, since the complaint was entered by a third party, in all probability the Indian was only a tool.



The Venezuelan Minister of Foreign Affairs Visits Washington

THE arrival in Washington on June 3, 1942, of Dr. C. Parra-Pérez, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Venezuela, on a mission of consultation and interchange of ideas and experience in the American war effort, supplied another link in the chain of inter-American "talks" that have taken place in recent months between high ranking representatives of Latin American Governments and United States officials in Washington.

Dr. Parra-Pérez was accompanied on his visit by the following named party of Venezuelan officials: Rodolfo Rojas, Minister of Agriculture; H. Gil-Fortoul, Director of the Foreign Office; José Joaquín González Gorrondona, Chairman of the Import Control Commission; Julio Alfredo de la Rosa, Section Chief of the Foreign Office; Manuel Pérez Guerrero, Secretary to the Minister of Agriculture; and Antonio Dávila, member of the Import Control Commission.

The Governing Board of the Pan American Union held a special meeting on June 4, 1942, in honor of Dr. Parra-Pérez. The Secretary of State and Chairman of the Governing Board, the Honorable Cordell Hull, welcomed the distinguished visitor in these words:

My colleagues of the Governing Board have entrusted to me the delightful task of extending to you, Mr. Minister, the warmest possible welcome on behalf of the Pan American Union. You have greatly honored us in attending this special session.

We have all followed with the deepest interest your career in the many high diplomatic and administrative posts that you have occupied with such distinction. It was my good fortune to be

your colleague at the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace at Buenos Aires in 1936, and I was then in a position to witness at first hand your unswerving devotion to the highest standards of international conduct as well as to the principles of Pan American unity.

In addition to your distinguished public service you have gained for yourself a high place amongst the historians of the Americas, and I welcome you therefore not only in your capacity as Minister of Foreign Affairs of Venezuela but also as one of the leaders in scholarly research.

You come to us, Mr. Minister, representing a people who from the earliest period of their existence as a nation have enjoyed the proud distinction of giving to the Americas a long line of brilliant leaders in the cause of continental cooperation. From the time of Bolívar up to the present moment Venezuela's international record is one of which she may well be proud. Your country has demonstrated to the world that the peaceful settlement of international disputes is entirely consonant with the complete maintenance of national rights. The series of agreements finally disposing of Venezuela's boundary disputes constitutes one of the brightest as well as one of the most significant chapters in the history of the Americas.

In the terrible conflict in which we are today engaged and which means so much to the future of democratic institutions on this continent, Venezuela acted almost immediately after the cowardly attack on Pearl Harbor to declare her complete solidarity with the republics of America. We also recall with pleasure that at the recent Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs at Rio de Janeiro you were the co-sponsor of the resolution on the severance of diplomatic relations with the aggressor nations.

We welcome you, Mr. Minister, not only because of the fine example your country has set in her international relations, but especially because of the high qualities you have consistently shown in public service.

In response to the remarks of the Secretary of State, Dr. Parra-Pérez said:

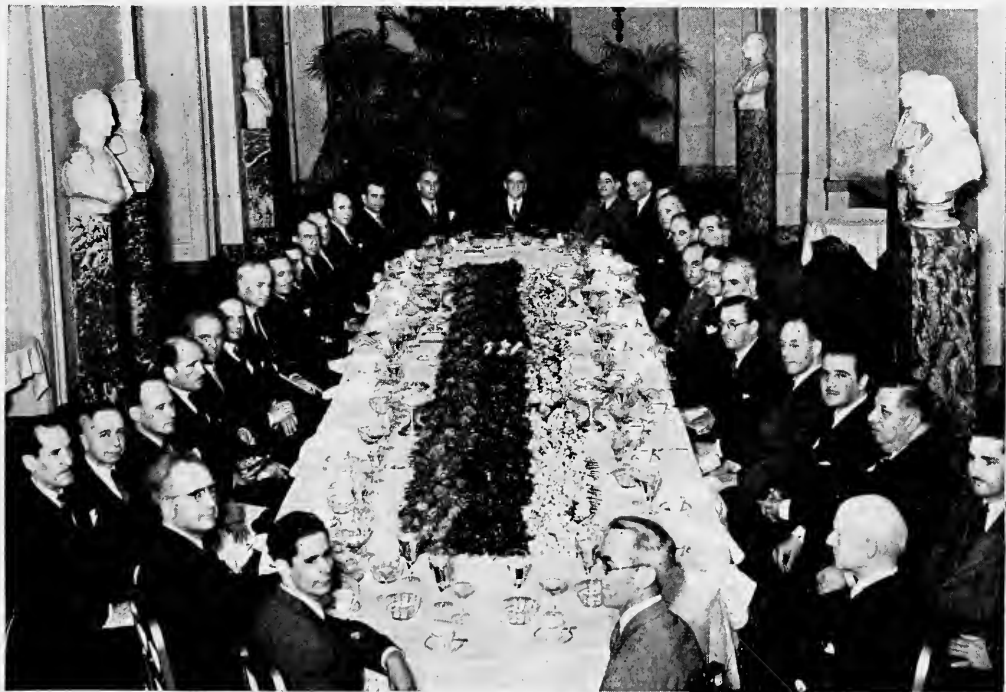
MR. CHAIRMAN:

I shall always consider it the greatest honor of my life to have received through you, in this room of the Governing Board, the words of welcome of the Pan American Union. As an apostle of liberty you are one of the most prominent leaders of the public conscience of our continent and to the political tradition of your country you have given an unequalled impress of nobility. To receive praise from you gives cause for pride in whoever receives it, and I should be greatly tempted to boast about it were I not firmly convinced that through my humble person you wish to honor my mission and the nation I represent.

I beg to express my deep gratitude for your kind references to the small services I have been able to render to the cause of Pan Americanism. You speak, too, of my contribution to the clarification of certain periods of American history. That contribution has been modest and those services are but the response to a mandate with which all Venezuelans are bound to comply. If at Buenos Aires I had the privilege of cooper-

ating with you in fortifying the foundations of continental solidarity; if at Rio de Janeiro I endeavored to help my illustrious colleagues in seeking formulas for understanding that would permit our countries to face the common peril of this ominous hour; if as Minister of Foreign Affairs I have been President Medina's loyal interpreter in his policy of solidarity and cooperation with the American nations. believe me, Your Excellency, when I say that on every occasion I, as representative of Venezuela, have but expressed the deeply rooted convictions and sentiments of my Government and my country.

America has been in permanent session ever since Bolívar summoned it to the congress at Panama in 1826. The whole doctrine of Pan Americanism, originated at that historic assembly and supplemented at later and no less historic meetings, is being applied now, when all Americans are facing the aggressor, condemning the barbarous methods of conquest, and reaffirming their position as defenders of liberty and democracy. Venezuela, land of legendary heroism, is in accord with all the nations of the continent, and



THE GOVERNING BOARD LUNCHEON IN HONOR OF DR. PARRA-PÉREZ

The guest of honor sits at Secretary Hull's right, in the center of the left-hand side.

my country will continue to cooperate in defending the international ideal that has inspired our conferences, the free institutions that govern our lives, and the political and economic interests that are common to us all and that can be preserved only by following the example of this Pan American Union in whose name you are welcoming me. It is indeed an example of constancy, of loyalty to its historic mission, and of supreme devotion to the sacred duties imposed upon it.

Although victory is certain, war is a harsh and difficult ordeal. This war will not put an end to our common trials and sacrifices. When the time arrives to repair the political, moral, and material ruins left behind by this catastrophe, America must be prepared not only to follow its own historic course, but also to point out the path to those nations which, on emerging from this ruthless struggle, will wish to live again under the standards of humanity, law, and justice which governments of outrage and aggression have sought to destroy.

Deeply moved, I present, through you and the Ambassadors and Ministers here present, a most cordial greeting from Venezuela to her sister republics.

Following the meeting, Dr. Parra-Pérez was the guest of the Board members at a luncheon in the Gallery of Heroes of the Pan American Union.

During his five-day stay in Washington the Minister was honored at a number of other functions, including a luncheon given by the Secretary of State; another given by the British Ambassador to the United States, Lord Halifax; a series of dinners given by the Under-Secretary of State, Mr. Sumner Welles, the Under-Secretary of War, Judge Robert P. Patterson, and the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs and Mrs. Nelson Rockefeller; and a reception at the Venezuelan Embassy.

At the conclusion of his Washington visit, the Venezuelan Foreign Minister and his party entrained for a brief tour to Detroit, Buffalo, and New York City. The Chrysler Tank Arsenal, the factory of the Packard Motor Car Company, and the Ford River Rouge and Willow Run plants were inspected in the first-named city and the plants of the Curtiss-Wright and the Bell Aircraft Corporations in the second. In New York, Dr. Parra-Pérez and his party were guests at a dinner given at the Waldorf-Astoria by the Pan American Society and the Venezuelan Chamber of Commerce, and at a luncheon offered by Mr. Thomas J. Watson, President of the International Business Machines Corporation.

The Venezuelan Foreign Minister is well known as a lawyer, historian, and diplomat. After extensive studies in Venezuela, where he obtained degrees in jurisprudence and political science, he undertook advanced studies at the *École Libre des Sciences Politiques* and the University of Paris. During his residence in France he served successively as attaché, secretary, and counselor of the Venezuelan Legation, and later held diplomatic posts as chargé d'affaires in Switzerland and Minister to Italy, England, and Spain. He has been decorated by nine nations.

Dr. Parra-Pérez was Venezuela's representative at the recent Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs at Rio de Janeiro where, together with the delegates of Mexico and Colombia, he sponsored the resolution which called for a severance of relations with the Axis.



Photograph by E. A. Chapin

THE INSTITUTE OF NATURAL SCIENCES, BOGOTÁ

The Institute has a beautiful setting on the University campus.

Science Helps Save Colombian Crops

A Glimpse of Colombia's Expanding Work in Entomology

EDWARD A. CHAPIN

Curator of Insects, United States National Museum

A TRIM white building is sharply silhouetted against the ancient mountain, cloud-covered now as in days of old Santa Fé, that forms the silent back drop for busy Bogotá. It is a fitting home for the Institute of Natural Sciences, that vigorous and promising new offshoot from Colombia's long-time love of learning. For a few weeks last February and March, it was my privilege to share, as an invited guest, in the work of the Institute's department of entomology, collaborating with the able chief of that department, Luis María Murillo.

It is not yet a large department, nor a rich one; but for all that, it is a laboratory to delight the heart of a scientist. Its chief has a vision that reaches beyond the immediate tasks of the present, its staff is earnest, and the specimens in the small working collection are excellently prepared. Every insect has been carefully handled, and is accurately labeled with those complete data as to time, place, and environment which must always be available if an insect collection is to serve as the basis for serious scientific study.

The Institute is located in the Univer-



Photograph by E. A. Chapin

PÁRAMO DEL DIABLO, BETWEEN ZIPAQUIRÁ AND PACHO

This was the scene of one of the collecting trips made by the author and his Colombian colleagues.

sity City, on the new site in the outer part of Bogotá to which the University has been transferring some of its faculties. Laid out in 1938, at the time of the four hundredth anniversary of the founding of the city of Bogotá, the University City has been one of the important forward-pointing elements in the wide program of literary and educational achievements grouped around that significant date.

Here there is space, a great tract of land ready to be landscaped as each portion is developed and utilized for its special purpose; and here the Institute has been able to surround itself with living materials for the study of the natural sciences. There are outdoor cages, there are shrubs and flowering trees where insects present themselves for capture, and there are

garden plots and bright-colored flower beds, new and gay under thick white clouds such as have floated above four centuries of human effort on this mile-and-a-half high plateau of the Andes.

The building itself is dedicated to the memory of José Celestino Mutis, that great scholar whose Botanical Expedition, in the late 18th century, gave Colombia the honor of making such preëminent contributions to the New World's knowledge of its own natural sciences—not only in the field of botany, but in zoology, astronomy, and geology as well. A bust and tablet on the wall of the arcade around the patio record this dedication. An arbor of hanging bell-shaped orange-red blossoms dominates the flowers and shrubbery around the wide pool at the

center of the patio; it is an arbor of *Mutisia*, the trailing vine named in honor of the famous naturalist.

Opening from the cloister around the patio are the laboratories and offices devoted to work in the natural sciences. Already there are laboratories for entomology, for ornithology and mammalogy, for botany and for phytopathology, and the Institute hopes soon to develop its own departments of geology and mineralogy.

At the right of the entrance is the department of entomology. The chief's office is a sunny corner room with work tables and rearing cages as well as desk and bookshelves. Next to it is the laboratory, with work tables for the staff and cases for the collection of insects. Already the collection contains specimens from the principal families of Colombian insects, including a good selection of Coccinellidae, or lady beetles. These are important to the welfare of many Colombian crops and forest trees because various members of this family feed on other insects, insects which

would otherwise be attacking the plants and trees. There are also study collections of the scarab beetles which damage valuable plants grown in Colombia, of the Tachinidae which protect the crops by parasitizing injurious insects, and of various other insect groups closely linked with the economy of the country.

Using this office and laboratory as headquarters, Señor Murillo and I surveyed the scientific resources and possibilities at the disposal of entomologists now at work in various parts of Colombia. We also laid the ground work for a rather thorough investigation of the taxonomy and bionomics of the Coccinellidae, or lady beetles, of Colombia; and with the help of two members of Señor Murillo's staff of entomologists we carried on field studies in various parts of Cundinamarca, the department in which Bogotá is situated.

Coccinellidae were chosen for special study because this family of beetles wields great influence on the economic life of Colombia. The family contains a few

THE AUTHOR AND THREE COLOMBIAN ASSOCIATES

Seated: E. A. Chapin, Curator of Insects, United States National Museum; standing, right to left: Luis María Murillo, Chief of Section of Entomology, Institute of Natural Sciences, Bogotá; and Francisco Otoy and Hernando Osorno M., assistant entomologists.



Photograph by L. M. Murillo



Photograph by E. A. Chapin

ANOTHER COLOMBIAN ENTOMOLOGIST

Francisco Luis Gallego, Professor of Entomology,
School of Agriculture, Medellín.

species which eat plants, and which are particularly dangerous to plants in the potato and tomato groups. On the other hand, this same family also contains a great many species which eat insects; the insects which they eat are plant-eating insects, capable of doing much damage to gardens and orchards unless kept under control. Some of these insect-eating Coccinellidae rank among the best defenses yet known for citrus orchards, and they are of very great potential value in protecting many of Colombia's important orchard and field crops, such as coffee, bananas, and citrus fruit.

Our study expeditions in Cundinamarca were planned to take advantage of Bogotá's location, within quick and easy reach of a great variety of climates. In a few hours we could drive down to the colorful citrus orchards of *tierra caliente* (the hot country), or up to the misty cold of an Andean paramo, its open

hillsides thickly dotted with the big dull-green spike-rosettes of the *frailejón*. We made several of these all-day trips from Bogotá, and collected, for our laboratory studies, insect specimens from Pacho, Zipaquirá, Río Negro, Machetá, Guayeté, and Gachetá, from the Páramo of Guasca and from the Páramo del Diablo.

In addition to our work in Bogotá and in the nearby parts of Cundinamarca, we made brief visits to centers of entomological study in several other parts of Colombia. We went first to Medellín, to the School of Agriculture of the National University. Here we saw the laboratories and classrooms, the gardens and farm buildings, where the Director of this school, Dr. Jorge Gutiérrez, is combining scientific instruction with practical training in agriculture. Dr. Francisco Luis Gallego,



Photograph by E. A. Chapin

A COLONY OF BUMBLEBEES IN A BOGOTÁ GARDEN

head of the department of entomology, is building up an entomological collection at the school, while at the same time he teaches his students to recognize and control some of the insects which attack local fruit and vegetable crops.

From Medellín we went to Cali, in the beautiful Cauca valley. After a call at the Vocational School, where classes of young mechanics are preparing themselves for the increasing load of local repair work which will soon be made necessary by Colombia's growing store of machinery, we visited the Agricultural Experiment Station at Palmira. Here are collected and studied the insects affecting the rice, sugar cane, tobacco and other crops of the rich Cauca Valley. Dr. Raúl de Varela,

director of the station, and Dr. Belisario Losada, head of the division of entomology, welcomed us. Dr. Losada arranged an expedition along the beautiful new Highway to the Sea, and so gave us the opportunity to collect a number of interesting specimens which we had not been able to find in Cundinamarca.

Because my stay in Colombia was very short, we could not find time to explore together the fauna of the great llano regions to the east and south of the eastern cordilleras, nor to collect in the valley of the Río Magdalena, or in the many other tempting hunting-grounds offered by Colombia's astonishingly wide variety of climates. Her entomologists have a rich field to cultivate.



Photograph by E. A. Chapin

THE SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE, MEDELLÍN

The collection of insects here is of importance to the students in their study of agricultural pests.

The Chile-United States Cultural Institute

New Quarters and an Expanded Program

RALPH A. JONES

Junior Economic Analyst, American Embassy, Santiago, Chile

ON THANKSGIVING DAY of this year the Chile-United States Cultural Institute in Santiago will celebrate its fourth anniversary. Since its formal founding on November 28, 1938, until January 1942, the Institute had been carrying out its program under the handicap of cramped quarters and restricted facilities. For its first two years of existence, in fact, the Institute had no space whatever that it could call its own. In the early part of 1941 the Santiago Branch of the National City Bank of New York generously donated room space on the third floor of its building to the organization.

These quarters were a splendid improvement over none at all, but they could, at the most, serve as no more than a headquarters and base of operations for the Institute's activities. What the organization lacked as an effective channel for the stimulation of cultural interchange was facilities for the frequent meeting and association of Chileans and Americans in pleasant surroundings.

A new era in the history of the Institute was inaugurated with the dedication at the Pan American Day celebration, April 15, 1942, of a building providing just such facilities. This new building, at Calle París 815 in Santiago, is in fact a fine old house originally built by an American and long inhabited by a well-to-do Chilean family. It includes on its three spacious

floors a library, made up of a wide collection of books assembled by the Association of American Women in Chile; a comfortable lounge with fireplace, grand piano, radio-phonograph, and record collection; an attractive tearoom with adjacent, well-equipped kitchen; a game room; several rooms for classes and informal discussion; numerous offices, and a first-aid room. The entire building is very attractively furnished. On the walls of the lounge two striking art exhibitions have already been shown. The first was a series of paintings by a modern Spanish artist at the time residing in Chile; the second and present adornment is a magnificent collection of enlarged photographic scenes from various parts of the country.

The dedication of this new building on Pan American Day, by reason of the auspices under which it was conducted and the interest it aroused, augurs well for the future of the Institute, which has been particularly fortunate in having had Dr. Ernesto Barros Jarpa as its active president from the beginning until the present year. Though he is the incumbent Minister of Foreign Relations in the Cabinet of Chile's new President, Juan Antonio Ríos, Dr. Barros Jarpa has maintained the position of honorary president of the Institute. He has not failed to evidence his continued great interest in the activities and purposes of

the Institute in spite of his rigorous duties in public office.

At a dedication luncheon for the Institute on Pan American Day, Dr. Barros Jarpa and the Ambassador of the United States, Mr. Claude G. Bowers, were among the distinguished guests and speakers. Besides this luncheon, a cocktail party for the members of the diplomatic corps and the intellectual group in Santiago was sponsored by the Acting President of the Institute, Dr. Eugenio Pereira Salas, in the afternoon of the same day. This brilliant affair was in the nature of an open house and did much to acquaint the visitors with the Institute's progress and aims.

Actively serving the Institute for the current year is the following staff of able officers:

Acting President and Secretary—Eugenio Pereira Salas
Vice-President—Henry A. Arnold
Assistant Secretary—Carlos Arancibia
Treasurer—Joseph F. Dawson
Assistant Treasurer—Charles Marshall.

The affairs of the Institute are vested in the hands of a Board of Directors composed of four Chileans and four Americans. The present Board is made up of Srta. Irma Salas, Mrs. Luis Abelli, Mrs. Cecil B. Lyon, Miss Elizabeth Mason, Srta. Marta Chatterton, Mr. Roy E. Cohen, Sr. Domingo Santa Cruz, and Dr. Hernán Romero. Mr. Albert Harkness is the Administrative Director of the Institute, acting on behalf of this Board.

In the past the Institute has been particularly active in facilitating the exchange of university students between Chile and the United States. Its library is equipped with a complete collection of current bulletins of American universities and colleges. The organization maintains a service for the location of American students in Chile, and *vice versa*, in the homes of local families.

Other activities of the Institute have included the sponsoring of conferences with eminent Americans who have visited Chile and the organization of other activities woven about their special fields during their sojourn in the country. Closely connected with this type of activity have been the arrangements made for many representative Americans to speak over various Chilean broadcasting stations. During 1941 the Institute participated in no fewer than 58 broadcasts. One of the outstanding events of the year 1941 was the presentation by the Institute of the Yale Glee Club, which paid a visit to Chile during its tour of the American Republics.

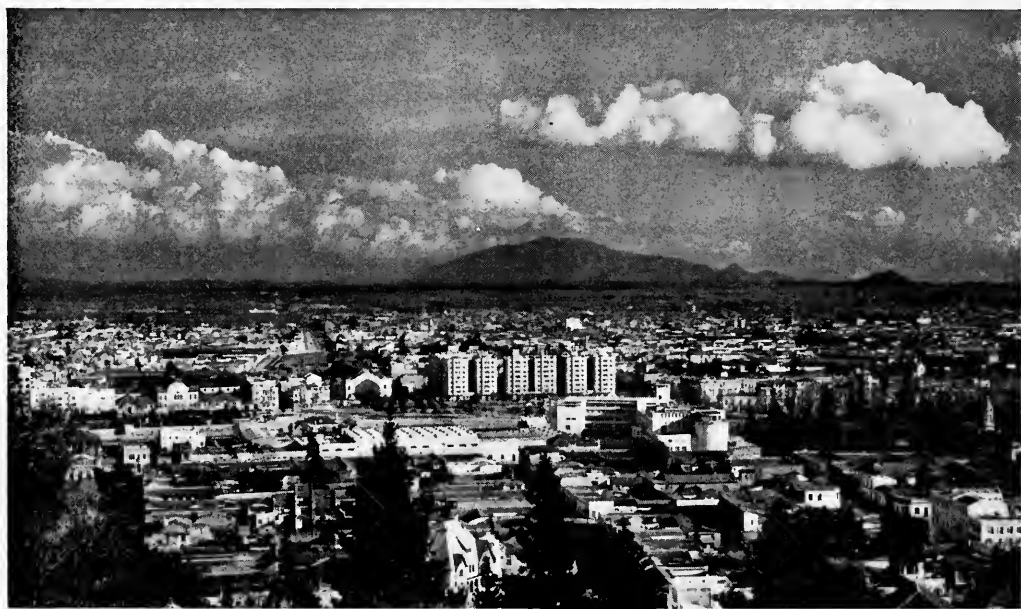
But these scattered instances of the past activity of the Institute are but indications of the scope of the activity that is now possible through the provision of a building of its own. For the first time in the history of the organization classes on a regular and planned basis have been possible. Even before its formal dedication last April the facilities of the building were being used for classes in Spanish and English, as well as in American and Chilean history, under the direction of various Chilean and American members of the Institute. English classes have been graded into three groups according to the state of proficiency of the students; Spanish classes have been divided into elementary and intermediate groups. In addition to these regularly scheduled courses, a series of conferences has been undertaken under the direction of Professor Isaac Joslin Cox of Northwestern University on the subject *The Development of Democracy in the United States*. Since April 16, weekly first-aid classes have been conducted for Chilean, American, and British women resident in Santiago.

As a social center the Institute is ideal. Already various informal mixed or speci-

alized groups have made it their headquarters for their respective activities. The custom of afternoon tea at the Institute is becoming widespread among Americans and sympathetic Chileans. Sunday evening "supper" has been initiated as a means of bringing together Chileans and Americans of opposite sexes in small, informal groups. The language to be spoken at such gatherings is predetermined as either Spanish or English, and no deviations are permitted.

It should be gratifying to all those interested in the betterment of understand-

ing between the United States and the various other American republics to know that Chileans and Americans in the great capital of Santiago at last have a means for the fulfillment of such better understanding by close contact and discussion of mutual interests and problems in the pleasant surroundings of a fine edifice. The Chile-United States Cultural Institute has come a long way in its short three and a half years of existence. Its fortunate acquisition of a new home would seem to assure its progress through future years.



A VIEW OF SANTIAGO

Ordeal by Vapor

GEORGE M. FOSTER, Jr.

I LAY on a reed mat, face down, nose over a shallow excavation, eagerly gulping the occasional breaths of fresh air that found their way to me. In the near-darkness hot, moist vapors swirled about my unclothed body, aggravating an already intolerable smarting caused by a recent beating with switches cut from pungent pepper-tree branches. My lips were puffed so that speech was nearly impossible, and my eyes watered so that I could scarcely see. Beside me lay Carlos, apparently lifeless. Beside him, clothed only in a broad-brimmed sombrero, squatted old Doña María, dipping water out of a wooden basin and pouring it through an unseen hole in an unseen wall. What lay in store for me I knew not. Under such conditions one is apt to reflect—and perhaps repent hasty action.

My predicament was due, not to shipwreck on a South Seas island inhabited by cannibals, but to an over-zealous scientific curiosity. Since I am an anthropologist it is an important part of my profession to investigate the customs of lesser known peoples in various parts of the world. Some curiosity as to how the rest of the world lives is ingrained in everyone. All of us are incipient anthropologists, and should a chance combination of circumstances make us decide to devote the major part of our time to this fascinating study—then watch out! Into what unforeseen places it may lead, one can never foretell.

The author is an ethnologist who has done field work among Indian groups in California and Mexico. At present he is teaching at Syracuse University.

My own uncertain situation had its immediate origin in an impromptu Sunday excursion from Mexico City. In the story-book pueblo of Milpa Alta—four centuries in time and an hour's ride over a paved road from the Mexican capital—Carlos and I found ourselves seated in the patio of Don José, an aging Aztec Indian. True to the traditions of his race he had greeted us—total strangers—with hospitality, and now we were engaged in a lively conversation based principally on our questions and his explanations. What particularly fascinated us was a little stone beehive-shaped building adjoining his house, and looking for all the world like a primitive baker's oven or an Eskimo igloo. Affinity to the former was much greater, we shortly learned, than to the latter. "It's a *temazcal*,"¹ he explained. "We use it for bathing."

A wild idea came to me. "Don José, we want to bathe in the *temazcal*. Will you prepare it?" Carlos audibly gasped, choked on his cigarette, but maintained a united front by saying nothing. "But señor, none but an Indian would enjoy it. You would find it very disagreeable." Finally my entreaties won, or more probably, intrigued at the thought of telling his neighbors that a *Norteamericano* had come many miles to bathe in his, Don José's, *temazcal*, he agreed to fire the sweat house.

While wood was being gathered we

¹ One of the most typical and yet least known traits of many of the Indians of Mexico is the "*temazcal*" or vapor bath. The name derives from the Aztec words "*tema*," to bathe, and "*calli*," house, and means literally "bathhouse." This practice of bathing in vapor is the functional equivalent of the Finnish steam bath and of the sweat bath of many of the Indians of the United States.



Photograph by George M. Foster, Jr.

DON JOSÉ'S TEMAZCAL AT MILPA ALTA, MEXICO

Scientific curiosity led the author and a friend to endure the rigors of a vapor bath in this *temazcal*.

examined the structure more closely, and found that it consisted of a small room six feet in diameter with a domed roof four feet high. Access was by a door eighteen inches high and a bit less wide. Beneath the door was an excavation eight inches deep with a step on the inner side, so that to enter one crawled on hands and knees down, in, and then up to the floor level. On the left side, somewhat toward the front, was a smaller room, two feet in all dimensions, semi-dome-shaped, with an opening to the outside, and a smaller hole joining it to the main chamber. Presently an old woman set fire to kindling in this space, the fireplace, and in a moment smoke began to pour from the main door, the draft sucking it through the small connecting hole into the main chamber, and thence out the entrance. The smoke became thicker, and more wood was added, until a miniature inferno was

blazing, heating both the firebox and the main building itself. In the corner of the patio another fire was lighted and a five-gallon tin of water put to heat.

At the end of an hour Don José informed us that all was in readiness. Retiring to his home we removed our clothing, and returned to find that the fireplace opening had been sealed with a stone slab and clay, and the fire thus extinguished. Stripped, first Carlos and then I entered the *temazcal*, to be met with a suffocating heat. This we had expected. Not expected was the presence of the aged Doña María, also stripped, who was the supervisor of the *temazcal* and recognized as the best in her line in Milpa Alta. For a moment we lay motionless on the floor, recovering from our initial shock, accustoming our eyes to the gloom and our breathing to the hot, humid air. A thermometer borrowed from the car in the interests of

science registered 114 degrees on the floor. At the ceiling it immediately went above the final gradation, and to prevent its breaking we hastily passed it to waiting brown hands outside. One hundred fifty degrees or more we guessed the highest temperature to be. The vapor, we discovered, was produced by throwing cups of water through the small communicating hole into the fireplace and onto the hot rock walls. In a flash the water became steam, filled the fire chamber and expanded back into our room. "Now we know how a boiling lobster feels," we thought to ourselves.

"Señores, your heads at the door, this way," chanted Doña María. Ah, then it was possible to live in a *temazcal*. The door was covered with a rag to prevent steam from escaping, but by hanging our noses over the edge of the hole we found fresh air. "Not so bad after all, eh, Carlos?" I queried, little realizing what was to come.

Outwardly impassive, though doubtlessly puzzled at the sight of two novices, Doña María began her task. Upon each of us in turn she poured hot water, previously heated in the five gallon tin, and soaped us thoroughly. After throwing more water into the firebox she took switches of pepper trees (the beautiful tree with red berries so common over all the Mexican plateau) and rhythmically began to beat our bodies, first slowly and gently, then harder and faster. The action carried the live steam from above into contact with our skins—punishment enough without the even worse stinging of the pepper leaves. Eyes burned—we closed them. Lips puffed—we moistened them with our tongues, only to find this to be the worst thing we could do. First our backs, then our stomachs; no part of the anatomy was sacred to this relentless switching. From time to time Doña

María stopped, both to rest herself and to throw more water—ever more water—into the fireplace. In spite of our air hole the heat was overpowering, and our heads felt as if they must split. María called for her hat, a large straw sombrero. Never, we thought, was a place less suited for such headgear.

In these intervals we had a moment's respite, and lay with noses deep in the hole, gathering strength for whatever unknown ordeal lay ahead. At times the rag door was lifted and a wooden dish with more warm water passed in. Dark beady eyes peered into the gloom, and their owners, little Indian girls, no doubt thought that the white-skinned *gringo* was



Photograph by George M. Foster, Jr.

STOKING THE TEMAZCAL

Doña María is feeding wood into the fireplace in order to heat the whole structure.

the most amazing spectacle they had ever witnessed. When had Milpa Alta known such excitement? Within their short lifetimes, none could remember.

Now came the final ordeal, first to Carlos, after which he was allowed to escape, and then to me. Doña María again poured water over our pink bodies and then began a deliberate and thorough washing—a washing such as I had not had since a certain Saturday evening twenty years earlier. “Oh, Doña María, no more steam, in the name of Dios,” but my pleas went unheeded. “Señor, the steam is necessary, and it is really not hot at all. And please don’t talk so much!” she authoritatively added. Resignedly I lay back, feeling more dead than alive, and very much the unwilling prisoner of a determined sadist. Little consolation was afforded by the thought of instructions previously left to pull me out if I lost consciousness. “More like these diabolical Indians to leave me inside to cook,” I thought. The washing was not pleasant. First a bony, grimy finger in the right ear, then in the left, then in the nostrils. “Surely, this ‘cleaning’ will leave me with nothing but germs and infections. Besides, as an adult I really don’t need the help of a woman in washing—it makes me feel like a child again.”

“Señor, take the cup and rinse yourself.” Thank heaven, it was over, and I was still alive and in control of most of my faculties. Carlos passed me a blanket in which I wrapped myself and then staggered into

the cool air and sunshine, mentally thanking my lucky stars that, unlike the Plains Indians of the United States, I was not expected to rush to an icy stream to bathe. Surprisingly I did not feel a chill; apparently my body was too hot to feel any kind of atmospheric condition.

A few moments of rest on a board bed and I was dry, though the hour and a half in the *temazcal* had left me much the worse for wear, and several pounds lighter.

A final surprise awaited us. We had supposed old Doña María would be pulled from the *temazcal* as exhausted as we. Not so. After dressing we discovered the rag door again down, steam pouring out from around the edges, and inside we heard our masseuse singing and switching herself violently. After killing herself (so it seemed to us) in supervising our bath she was now enjoying her own in peace.

“Señor, your head aches?” questioned Don José. “It is because you insisted on talking. You should know that he who talks in the bath will surely have a headache. Old Doña María? She wore her sombrero to protect her against headache too.” We asked a few more questions. “Yes, we bathe in the *temazcal* every week. It is good for the health in general, and especially for all kinds of fever.” “And you use it for colds, too?” I asked. “No, señor.” “And what do you use?” I pursued with professional insistence. “Pues, Mentholatum, of course. What else would one do?”

An Educational Crusade in Brazil

ROBERT KING HALL

HIGH up on the eighth floor of one of Rio de Janeiro's many new business structures there is a modest suite of offices. From below comes the subdued roar of traffic in the Largo da Carioca. Within the suite there is silence. Even the furnishings, which are replicas of early Portuguese and Brazilian Empire pieces in *iacarandá*, hint at the quiet dignity of the occupants. For this suite of offices is the physical center of an educational movement that in the past ten years has spread from the capital into the most remote regions of rural Brazil. It is the symbol of what may prove to be the solution to that nation's illiteracy problem. It is a tangible expression of the personality of one of the most remarkable figures in Latin America. Shy, modest, yet burning with the zeal of a reformer, he sees in his daily task the answer to a social ill and the salvation of his nation. He has captured the loyalty of the Brazilians from the highest political, social, and military figures to the lowliest laborer contributing his pittance to an educational movement which he dimly senses will bring his country and his children a better life. This man, the founder and president of the National Crusade of Education (*Cruzada Nacional de Educação*), is Dr. Gustavo Armbrust.

Any analysis of the Crusade must of necessity consider the personality and character of Dr. Armbrust. He is a physician who has deserted his profession

for something that he considers of greater social significance than the healing of bodies. He is a man some of whose educational theories are those of an amateur, and there are not a few Brazilian educators who frankly classify him as a bit of a zealot and fanatic. But he possesses in abundance the admirable and requisite characteristics of the successful reformer. He is completely sincere. He is an indefatigable worker. He has a broad acquaintance among the most influential people of the capital and is driven by his passionate advocacy of the Crusade to extend his contacts constantly. No doubt ever enters his mind as to the essential worth of his work and no effort is too great, no return too small, if he feels that it will contribute to his end. He is a man of complete singleness of purpose. But above all he has two factors on his side that contribute to the outstanding success of his efforts. He has a problem that even the blind can see, and he has a solution that, for all its imperfections in detail, is essentially sound.

Dr. Armbrust really began his work in the National Educational Crusade in 1933. He had become convinced that the great social evil of Brazil was the high percentage of illiteracy. Unlike many educational reformers in Latin America he did not turn to law to find a solution. He knew that there had been ample legal provision for educating the nation's youth since the *Ato Adicional* was passed a century ago. A new law would bring no solution—only new evasions, defiance, and indifference from people who had neither instrument nor incentive for compliance. Nor did he

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turn to a statistical analysis of the gravity of the problem. There did not then exist any reliable statistics on illiteracy and the decade that has passed has only in part remedied this lack. He approached the problem from an extremely practical and objective point of view. He knew that illiteracy existed. He and anyone else with the desire to see could find it on every hand. He argued that illiteracy is the inability to read. Children learn to read in school. Hence, the children of Brazil could not have been going to school. His solution was equally straightforward. Send them to school

When Dr. Armbrust considered the practical problem of sending to school the thousands of Brazilian children who are today essentially without instruction, he became convinced of two things. One was that there existed a definite lack of school buildings and teachers that all existing governmental methods based upon taxation had failed to supply. The second was that many children voluntarily stayed away from existing school facilities because they lacked the physical necessities that their attendance demanded. There is no serious student of the problem of illiteracy in Brazil who would not admit that Dr. Armbrust's views leave many factors unaccounted for. He does not consider the thousands of once-literate students who are today illiterate because they have lacked the incentive and the material for maintaining their ability to read. He overlooks the many other thousands of children who consciously avoid school attendance as a troublesome but easily evaded governmental requirement because neither they nor their parents see any utilitarian benefit. He overlooks the millions of square miles of Brazil's interior where the population is so sparse as to make any education based upon traditional schools an impossibility, yet where the

aggregate population is not inconsiderable. He neglects the problem of unassimilated foreign-population groups where illiteracy has been traditionally measured in terms of another tongue than Portuguese and where today there exist hundreds of thousands of politically illiterate citizens of Brazil who have been adequately and in some cases abundantly educated in a foreign culture. Yet despite these errors of omission, Dr. Armbrust's attack upon the problem was a commendable one and it has attained a remarkable degree of success.

The program of the National Educational Crusade has been three-fold. In an effort to reduce the number of children who voluntarily stay away from school because they lack textbooks, pencils, and other supplies, the Crusade has provided free of charge these teaching materials. It has also provided at no cost to the children a really outstanding health service including clothing, shoes, dental and medical care, and above all, food. Finally, it has either assisted the legally constituted educational authorities to open and maintain schools or it has actually donated the school in its entirety and in some cases provided the teachers to staff it.

Such a program, if conducted on more than a minor local basis, could not fail to attract the attention and support of public-spirited people. A measure of its success may be taken from the growth of the service from its beginning. From 1933 to the end of 1941 the National Educational Crusade expended in the Federal District alone almost 98,000 milreis on medical services. In all of Brazil its expenditures for the same period, involving both medical and health services, physical equipment, clothing and teaching material, were a trifle more than 495,000 milreis. In the Federal District

713,000 milreis were spent on teachers' salaries, and in all of Brazil for the same period 836,000 milreis were similarly expended. When one considers that in most of the rural areas of Brazil an elementary school teacher, normal-school trained, receives a monthly salary of less than 200 milreis, it is immediately apparent that these figures represent an educational contribution of no small significance.

The Crusade started in 1933 with a modest subvention to some forty-two schools and is considered by the Brazilian authorities to have enabled 1,840 children in that year to attend schools which they otherwise would have been denied. In 1936 there came a terrible drought in the north of Brazil with its attendant suffering and loss of pupils. The number of children who attended schools dropped off in spite of all efforts that the Crusade could make. Gradually it built up again, however, to a peak of 1,233 schools and 60,245 students in 1941. In these first nine years of existence the Crusade has been directly responsible for the creation or support of 5,839 schools and has made possible the attendance of no less than 228,763 pupils. No accurate statistics exist indicating the amount of overlapping from year to year, but it is assumed by the Government that this aggregate number represents at least 150,000 different children, each of whom received between one and four years of schooling. As a measure of the program's effectiveness in combating illiteracy, it is enough to note that the official estimate indicates that 73 percent of these students are today literate.

The method by which the Crusade secures its funds for these services is perhaps the most interesting feature of the entire program. Dr. Armbrust has calculated that five milreis is sufficient to provide the necessary services for one pupil per

month. He seeks this aid from every possible source. The Military School in the Federal District, for example, has assumed the support of one school with 80 students. The Naval School supports one with 60. The Corps of Naval Fusiliers maintains a school with 200 pupils. The School of Aeronautics contributes to two schools with about 120 pupils. The Military Police of the Federal District give funds for eight schools with a total of 410 students. The Fire Department has built, outfitted, staffed, and donated to the Crusade a beautiful modern school for 90 students. The list of regiments, regional police forces, and other military groups in the various States that contribute to the support of individual schools is a lengthy one.

But Dr. Armbrust has not been content with soliciting the aid of official groups. He has prevailed upon industrial concerns, bankers, commercial houses, social organizations, clubs, and individuals to contribute the land, materials, money, or actual buildings for some 167 schools that have an annual enrollment of about 6,400 pupils. A typical example of such a school is the beautiful *Escola Darcy Vargas*, named for the wife of Brazil's President and situated at Braz de Pina in the Federal District. It is a modern, beautifully landscaped and situated building, built and equipped according to the highest standards of Brazilian education. Its cost, 80,000 milreis, is considerably above the average for other Brazilian educational structures of an equal size and is an indication of its physical quality. It was given to the Crusade by a private corporation interested in the sale of land in the neighborhood of the school.

The National Educational Crusade is attempting to extend its services into other fields and already in 1942 has initiated two enterprises meriting attention. On April

nineteenth, the *Escola Biblioteca Getulio Vargas Nº 1* was dedicated in Rio de Janeiro. It is an attempt at adult education among the workers who are connected with the SAPS (*Serviço de Assistência Pública Social*—Public Social Welfare Service) and is housed in a delightfully equipped suite of rooms in the restaurant building of that organization. The second of the new services is an attempt to provide secondary education for gifted and deserving students who for financial reasons would otherwise be denied this study. Free secondary education is not general in Brazil, and the modest start of complete financial assistance for 36 secondary students is something of a revolution in educational practice. All these students had previously been elementary pupils supported by the Crusade and their selection represents, in effect, the discovery and utilization of human intellectual resources which would have otherwise been lost to Brazil.

Dr. Gustavo Armbrust has commanded the admiration, loyalty, and cooperation of many of Brazil's most prominent citizens. President Vargas has on numerous occasions personally assisted with the inauguration of schools or the distribution of scholastic materials and prizes. The Ministers of Labor, Education, Navy, and War, have time and again lent both

financial and moral assistance to his program. The very quantity of private gifts that he has secured for the Crusade is a tribute to Dr. Armbrust's ingenuity and to the sincere esteem in which he is held. But he has done something for Brazil and for Latin America that far surpasses the actual monetary or even educational value of his Crusade. He has successfully demonstrated that private enterprise can admirably assist the federal educational program. He has proven that industry, commerce, and private philanthropy can be interested in education in Brazil in the same way that these non-official elements of American national life have so magnificently contributed to our educational structure in the United States. And he has proven that there can and does exist in Brazil, created by Brazilians, rising from their own culture and from their own modes of life, an excellent solution to at least a major portion of their most perplexing educational problem. In this he has presented the perfect denial to defeatism, reliance upon imported foreign cultures, and official paternalism.

"O Brasil precisa diminuir os analfabetos para que os analfabetos não diminuam o Brasil!"

(A free English translation of this slogan is: "*Brazil must lessen the number of illiterate so that the illiterate will not lessen the greatness of Brazil!*")



Courtesy of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs

The Benjamin Franklin Library in Mexico City

“BECAUSE of its high purpose, its modern technical organization, the desire for intellectual relationship that inspired its founders—and even because of the illustrious name which it bears, in memory of one of the most celebrated personages of the New World—the library we are inaugurating today is a most valuable testimony of the friendship which links the people of Mexico and the United States.”

Thus spoke President Manuel Ávila Camacho, whose presence was a measure of the auspiciousness of the occasion, in the course of his address at the dedication of the new Benjamin Franklin Library in Mexico City on April 13, 1942. The ceremonies, which were part of the observance of Pan American Day, were attended by the Hon. George Messersmith, Ambassador of the United States, the diplomats of the other American nations, government

officials, and representatives of cultural and scientific societies, including the American Library Association, who filled the auditorium in the spacious and substantial house on the Paseo de la Reforma converted to the Library's use.

"The foundation of this library seems to me one of the most important and significant events in the long history of relations between our two countries," said the American Ambassador in his reply to the President, an opinion undoubtedly shared not only by his audience but also by the societies and by the students enrolled in free courses in Spanish Braille and in English who were already meeting regularly in the library. Especially invited groups of educators and librarians who visited it immediately after its formal opening were likewise greatly impressed by its facilities.

The Benjamin Franklin Library was made possible through the cooperation of the Division of Cultural Relations of the

State Department, the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, and the American Library Association. Two members of that organization visited Mexico in 1941 to consult with Mexican officials, professional men and women, and members of the United States colony. As a result, arrangements were finally completed for installation of the library in the building it now occupies.

The library, which is open to the public daily from nine to one and three to five o'clock, has at present approximately five thousand volumes, largely reference books and general prose works in English and Spanish. It has a good collection of general and special encyclopedias, dictionaries, bibliographies, manuals, catalogues, and atlases; an important group of works on art, archaeology, literature, music, sociology, the theater, technology, science, agriculture, and education; a carefully chosen selection of classic and popular fiction, especially that which interprets the United States and the other American Republics; and a number of the most important periodicals of the United States in various cultural and scientific fields.

In addition to its auditorium, which is equipped with motion picture sound apparatus, the library contains general reading rooms, a children's room, a special room for Braille readers, and others for classes and conferences.

Plans for the future include the acquisition of music librettos and records, photographs and posters, and phonograph records for teaching English and Spanish; the showing of educational films; cultural activities, such as lectures by distinguished Mexican and United States scholars, concerts of Mexican and United States music, and art exhibitions; and finally, the installation of a microfilm and photographic service.

The library's director is Dr. Harry M.



Courtesy of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs

CHARGE DESK



Courtesy of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs

THE READING ROOM



Courtesy of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs

THE CHILDREN'S ROOM

Lydenberg, a distinguished man of letters associated for a long period of years with the New York Public Library, of which he was director from 1934 to 1941. To aid him in carrying into effect the Benjamin Franklyn Library's aim of becoming a general center of cultural activities in Mexico City, Dr. Lydenberg has a well-trained and experienced corps of assistants.

In planning its work, the library has undertaken to render several valuable services. It will gladly provide, through its own resources or through inter-library loans, the United States books, reviews, and other material needed by Mexican intellectuals and journalists in the pursuit of their studies, and hopes to make this service available not only to the capital but to other parts of the country as well. The library also desires, by furnishing comprehensive bibliographical data, to promote the purchase of Mexican books

in the United States and of United States books in Mexico.

Enabling Americans resident in Mexico to keep in touch with currents of thought in their own country is another of the library's expressed purposes.

The acclaim with which the inauguration of the library was received in Mexico may be expressed in the words of President Ávila Camacho, by quoting again from his dedicatory address: "Through the installation of this magnificent reading center, the people of the United States send us a permanent embassy of Pan American good will. The effort is all the more meritorious since it is made at a time when other countries, preoccupied only with immediate war objectives, have suspended general cultural activities. In these days of trial, the establishment of the Benjamin Franklin Library is an act that speaks eloquently of devotion to the spirit and faith in the common destiny of democracy."



La Aviación y los Corrales

“PROTEO”

SIEMPRE había deseado que la aviación no hiciera muchos progresos hasta que yo muriera, para no verme en el compromiso de subir en un aeroplano.

Pero no ha sucedido así y, aunque viejo y retirado del mundo, he tenido que sufrir esa experiencia.

Hace dos días que llegaron al pueblo dos americanos que aterrizaron en el llano por el rumbo del Panteón y, según dicen, cualquiera de nuestros terrenos pastales es buen campo de aterrizaje porque, como no ha llovido, ni el zacate estorba.

Un incidente imprevisto me hizo amigo de ellos y me invitaron a dar una vuelta en el aire en unión de dos de mis hijos, uno recién casado y el otro soltero todavía.

Yo pensé en Carranza (el aviador) ¹ y les dije que no tenía ningún negocio entre las nubes; pero mis hijos, menos prudentes que yo, aceptaron desde luego.

Por fin acepté yo también, más bien por patriotismo que por otra cosa. Estos señores hijos de Wáshington viajan en aeroplano con tanta confianza como yo en mi caballo o como mis hijos en su fordcito. Yo, hijo de Hidalgo, no podía enseñar el cobre.

Mi esposa y mi nuera consideraron el asunto como una de esas desgracias que, por inevitables, tienen que llegar algún día y no se opusieron.

En la noche anterior me acosté pensando

De “El Agricultor Mexicano,” Ciudad Juárez, Chihuahua, México, agosto de 1941.

¹ Emilio Carranza pereció en el año de 1928 cuando su avión cayó en el río Potomac cerca de Wáshington. Había venido a los Estados Unidos en vuelo de buena voluntad.

en Carranza y en otras cosas y el último pensamiento, antes de dormirme, fué que no se me olvidara decir a mi esposa dónde estaba la llave del cajón de la herramienta. Como yo sufro tanto cuando necesito un martillo o un serrucho y no encuentro la llave del cajón se me ocurrió que podía pasar una desgracia y necesitarse para cualquier cosa aquella llave.

A la mañana siguiente, al decir a mi esposa dónde estaba la llave, me miró con tristeza, pero sin decirme una palabra.

Fuimos a donde estaba el aeroplano y encontramos solamente a uno de los americanos. Era este aparato de seis pasajeros, pero nunca admiten más de cuatro, lo que prueba que también ellos sienten coraje. El otro americano andaba arreglando sus asuntos y se me ocurrió que también él andaría pensando en Carranza.

En el momento decisivo entramos al aeroplano, el cual, entre paréntesis, me pareció muy pequeño.

No me fijé en el motor ni en las alas ni en el manubrio, ni en los aparatos indicadores, que son un montón. Lo único que yo buscaba eran unas agarraderas.

Las encontré y me cogí bien de ellas, pero en seguida reflexioné que había muchas maneras de caer: de cabeza, de pies, de frente, para atrás y dos de lado, así es que difícilmente podrían servir unas solas agarraderas. Se necesitarían agarraderas para seis posiciones distintas, según el modo de venirse a pique y pensé en Carranza.

Mis hijos estaban enternecidos. “Sí,

papacito," me dijo uno de ellos al contestarme una pregunta, cuando ordinariamente de "papá" no pasó.

Comenzó a moverse el aparato y después de una gran vuelta sentimos que se desprendió del suelo y que se nos fué el mundo. En menos que se los cuento a Uds. estábamos entre 1,500 y 2,000 pies de altura, según confesión sincera y franca del americano.

Queríamos volvernos puros ojos para ver lo que estaba allá abajo. Cada vez que el aeroplano giraba se inclinaba para un lado y mis hijos y yo, pensando en Hidalgo y también en Carranza, dábamos discretamente un pujido.

Después de media hora volvimos a estar sobre la tierra, sanos y salvos, satisfecho yo de haber pasado ese trance, acerca del cual he querido decir a Uds. mis impresiones.

Lo que más me llamó la atención fué que para nada sirven las fachadas de las casas. De arriba no se ven más que los techos y éstos parecen todos iguales, así es que no llaman la atención.

Lo verdaderamente atractivo son los corrales.

¡Qué grandes son los corrales y cuántas cosas tienen! Jamás me había imaginado yo tal variedad en los corrales del pueblo.

Todo el dinero que gastó don Juan Porras en la fachada de su casa, que es la más bonita del pueblo, es dinero perdido. Luce más el corral de mi pobre casa.

Otra cosa: los terrenos bien cultivados se ven hermosísimos. La milpa de Teódulo Hernández parece que fuera de esmeralda, a fe que la tabla de Santa Rosa, que es de mi propiedad, está indecente por tanto zacate por un lado y tanto cadillo por el otro. Es indudable que un agricultor que suba en aeroplano, al volver al mundo, se siente impelido a limpiar sus tierras de malas hierbas sólo para que no se vean tan feas. ¡Ojalá que todos subieran!

¡Cuánto ganaría nuestra Agricultura si los agricultores pudieran ver sus tierras desde arriba!

Yo voy a entrarle desde mañana a la tabla de Santa Rosa; mi hijo el soltero tendrá que habérselas con el corral de mi casa, desde mañana mismo, y el casado, que está haciendo su casita nueva, vino resuelto a no gastar un centavo más en la fachada de su casa, que va a quedar lisa, y a dedicar lo que pueda en adornar el techo. Está convencido de que las fachadas no servirán para el futuro y de que es preferible poner adornos en los techos.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be

When a reference stands by itself in parenthesis, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number (e. g., 2a).

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, "Boletín Oficial"; Brazil, "Diário Oficial"; Chile, "Diario Oficial"; Colombia, "Diario Oficial"; Costa Rica, "Gaceta Oficial"; Cuba, "Gaceta Oficial"; Dominican Republic, "Gaceta Oficial"; El Salvador, "Diario Oficial"; Ecuador, "El Registro"; Guatemala, "Diario de Centro América"; Haiti, "Le Moniteur"; Honduras, "La Gaceta"; Mexico, "Diario Oficial"; Nicaragua, "La Gaceta"; Panama, "Gaceta Oficial"; Paraguay, "Gaceta Oficial"; Peru, "El Peruano"; Uruguay, "Diario Oficial"; and Venezuela, "Gaceta Oficial."

compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART V

ARGENTINA

12. March 28, 1942. Creation of a Commission for the Distribution of Rubber (*Comisión de Distribución de Caucho*) to handle the control of rubber and automobile tires. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, April 1, 1942.)
13. April 14, 1942. Executive decree, establishing maximum prices for automobile tires. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, April 15, 1942.)
14. April 17, 1942. Resolution of the Ministers of Finance and Agriculture, regulating the sale of automobiles. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, April 18, 1942.)
15. April 20, 1942. Executive decree, prohibiting the repair of foreign vessels except as authorized by the Ministry of the Navy. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, April 21, 1942.)
16. April 24, 1942. Executive decree, providing that maximum prices for cotton textiles be established by the Ministry of Agriculture. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, April 25, 1942.)
17. April 24, 1942. Executive decree, adopting a series of measures for the conservation of electricity and gasoline. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, April 25, 1942.)

BOLIVIA

3. March 19, 1942. Executive decree creating a Central Committee (*Comité Central*) for anti-aircraft defense. (*El Diario*, La Paz, March 27, 1942.)

BRAZIL

- 11a. January 30, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4070, organizing the 34th Battalion of Light Infantry, with headquarters at Belém. (*Diário Oficial*, February 2, 1942.)
- 11b. January 31, 1942. Decree Law No. 4074, organizing the First Mobile Coast Artillery unit in the 7th Military Zone. (*Diário Oficial*, February 2, 1942.)
- 11c. January 31, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4075, organizing the 7th Infantry Division, with headquarters at Recife. (*Diário Oficial*, February 2, 1942.)
- 13a. February 6, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4097, authorizing the War Ministry to requisition the photogrammetrical apparatus of the "Serviços Aéreos Condor, Ltda." (*Diário Oficial*, February 9, 1942.)
- 13b. February 6, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4098, requiring all Brazilians or foreigners resident in

or passing through Brazil, of both sexes and over 16 years of age, to take part in civilian air raid precautions, as a necessary step in national defense. (*Diário Oficial*, February 10, 1942.)

14. (Correction) February 9, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4102, establishing the Federal Territory of Fernando de Noronha. (*Diário Oficial*, February 11, 1942.)

15. (Correction) February 9, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4103, giving a new name and location to the Agricultural Colony of Fernando de Noronha. (*Diário Oficial*, February 11, 1942.)

15a. February 13, 1942. Order, Ministry of Aeronautics, requisitioning the planes, motors and all material, including buildings, offices, hangars, radio stations, etc., belonging to the "Linhas Aéreas Transcontinentais Italianas, Sociedade Anônima" (LATI). (*Diário Oficial*, February 18, 1942.)

15b. February 20, 1942. Communication No. 450, War Ministry, prescribing a more practical and definite preparation for candidates for the reserve forces. (*Diário Oficial*, February 24, 1942.)

15c. February 24, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4124, making desertion from the national merchant marine and the hiring out of a Brazilian to a foreign vessel without due authorization crimes punishable by law. (*Diário Oficial*, February 26, 1942.)

15d. February 24, 1942. Decree No. 8839, expropriating lands adjacent to the Air Base at Santos, São Paulo, for the purpose of enlarging the Base. (*Diário Oficial*, February 26, 1942.)

15e. February 25, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4129, prohibiting the exportation or re-exportation of motor vehicles and accessories of any kind. (*Diário Oficial*, February 27, 1942.)

15f. February 28, 1942. Communication No. 34, Ministry of Aeronautics, prescribing measures for intensification of training for air officers in the interests of development of the Brazilian Air Force. (*Diário Oficial*, March 2, 1942.)

17. (Correction) March 10, 1942. Constitutional Law No. 5, amending Articles 122, 166, and 168 of the Constitution. (*Diário Oficial*, March 11, 1942.)

19a. March 12, 1942. Decree-Law establishing a special credit of 600,000 contos to cover the cost of the Special Plan for Public Works and National Defense. (*Jornal de Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, March 13, 1942.)

20. March 13, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4174. (*Diário Oficial*, March 16, 1942.)

20a. March 16, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4184, authorizing the National Treasury to guarantee the purchase of Danish merchant ships interned in Brazilian ports, and for other purposes. (*Diário Oficial*, March 18, 1942.)

20b. March 20, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4193, establishing the Third Regional Company of Naval Gunners, with headquarters at Natal, Rio Grande do Norte. (*Diário Oficial*, March 23, 1942.)

21a. March 25, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4199, increasing the strength of the Military Police in the Federal District, in view of current needs for extra police protection. (*Diário Oficial*, March 27, 1942.)

22. (*Diário Oficial*, April 4, 1942.)

22a. April 2, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4222, regulating the calling of reserve officers to the colors. (*Diário Oficial*, April 6, 1942.)

22b. April 2, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4224, establishing the Third Infantry Brigade, with headquarters at Fortaleza, Ceará. (*Diário Oficial*, April 6, 1942.)

22c. April 8, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4237, authorizing the War Ministry to increase the strength of the army and to call up the classes deemed necessary therefor. (*Diário Oficial*, April 10, 1942.)

22d. April 10, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4248, organizing the Fifth Coast Artillery Battery at Forte de Manduba, Santos. (*Diário Oficial*, April 13, 1942.)

22e. April 10, 1942. Decree-Law No. 9241, declaring the exercise of technical directorship over specified industrial establishments to be of advantage to the military service. (*Diário Oficial*, April 13, 1942.)

22f. April 15, 1942. Order No. 3196, War Ministry, prescribing regulatory instructions for calling reserve officers to active service, in accordance with Decree-Law No. 4237 (see 22c above). (*Diário Oficial*, April 16, 1942.)

22g. April 17, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4270, establishing, for the duration of the war, priorities for the requirements of national security, in all matters relating to the country's industrial, agricultural, and stockraising production capacity, and prohibiting the exportation and re-exportation of articles of either national or foreign production that are considered necessary for home consumption. (*Diário Oficial*, April, 20 1942.)

22h. April 17, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4271, regulating the calling to active service of second class army reserve officers. (*Diário Oficial*, April 20, 1942.)

22i. April 17, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4272, providing for the rationing of automobiles and trucks. (*Diário Oficial*, April 20, 1942.)

22j. April 17, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4273, prohibiting the exportation or re-exportation, without previous permission, of chemical and pharmaceutical products, surgical, optical, photographic, and electrical goods, agricultural machinery, and tools in general. (*Diário Oficial*, April 20, 1942.)

27. May 20, 1942. Decree-Law prohibiting transactions in dollars and requiring that banks, business firms, and individuals who possess money in dollars shall deposit it in the Bank of Brazil. (*New York Times*, May 21, 1942.)

CHILE

10. April 7, 1942. Establishment of a temporary gasoline rationing system in Santiago to provide busses and trucks with sufficient fuel to carry on their business and to avoid a paralyzation of transportation facilities as a result of the gasoline shortage, brought about by the delay and uncertainty in tankers' arrivals from the United States. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, April 7 and April 8, 1942.)

11. April 8, 1942. Announcement by the Chairman of the Petroleum Supply Committee and Director of Mines and Petroleum of the Ministry of Promotion that a permanent plan for gasoline rationing will be evolved and will go into effect May 1, 1942. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, April 9, 1942.)

COLOMBIA

8a. December 19, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 2195, prescribing regulations for the importation and distribution of materials of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, December 23, 1941.)

21. March 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 704, prescribing regulations for the issuance of permits for the possession of firearms. (*Diario Oficial*, March 23, 1942.)

22. March 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 796, regulating Presidential Decree No. 58 of January 16, 1942 (see Colombia 9e, BULLETIN, June 1942), in regard to the purchase of platinum. (*Diario Oficial*, April 6, 1942.)

23. April 1, 1942. Executive Order No. 86, creating the National Commission for Economic

Study (*Comisión Nacional de Estudios Económicos*), charged with the planning and preparation of projects to be submitted by the Government to the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee. (*Diario Oficial*, April 11, 1942.)

24. April 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 907, prescribing measures in regard to purchases abroad by means of the Rotating Fund of the Ministry of Public Works. (*Boletín No. 401*, Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, April 16, 1942.)

25. April 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 915, regulating Art. 18 of Decree No. 59 of January 17, 1942 (see Colombia 10a, BULLETIN, June 1942), in regard to funds belonging to nationals of the Axis powers or nations occupied by them. (*Diario Oficial*, April 17, 1942.)

26. April 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 921, extending to Army personnel who engage in military aviation the insurance benefits already available to regular personnel of the Air Corps. (*Diario Oficial*, April 16, 1942.)

27. April 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 952, unconditionally prohibiting the possession and use of firearms by private citizens. (*Diario Oficial*, April 15, 1942.)

28. April 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 977, providing that radios on all ships, national or foreign, shall not be used while the ships are in ports, harbors, or landing places on the seacoasts or boundary rivers of the Republic, the only exceptions being war vessels and foreign boats that obtain special permission to use their communication system. (*Diario Oficial*, April 18, 1942.)

29. April 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1006, requiring registration in the National Office of Import Supervision (*Superintendencia Nacional de Importaciones*) of all materials necessary to the development of national production which are or may be subject to export restrictions in other countries, and of all those materials of foreign origin whose supply is or may become less than that required for normal consumption. (*Boletín No. 402*, Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, April 23, 1942.)

30. April 18, 1942. Resolution No. 1, National Office of Import Supervision, requiring declarations of stocks on hand of iron and steel. (*Boletín No. 402*, Ministerio de Relaciones Exteriores, April 23, 1942.)

COSTA RICA

27. April 7, 1942. Request issued by the Offices of Public Safety and Government (*Despachos de*

Seguridad Pública y Gobernación) asking the press to refrain from publishing any information regarding arrivals and departures of vessels in Costa Rican ports. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, April 13, 1942.)

28. April 12, 1942. Establishment of control by the Price Investigation and Control Office over all stocks of corn, beans, rice, and lard on hand. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, April 13, 1942.)

29. April 29, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 14, authorizing the use of stamps to cover the excise tax on bottled beer of local manufacture since, due to present world conditions, it is impossible to import the metal rings previously used. (*La Gaceta*, May 1, 1942.)

30. May 1, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 5, extending indefinitely the period of time for nationals of friendly nations resident in Costa Rica to obtain their certificates of residence. (*La Gaceta*, May 6, 1942.)

CUBA

151. April 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1324, prescribing regulations for the trade, distribution, and consumption of iron and steel materials, in accordance with Resolution-Law No. 5 (Production and Supply Law) of January 20, 1942 (see Cuba 45, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 11, 1942, p. 8287.)

152. April 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1185, prescribing measures in regard to the salvaging of used tubes of tin or tin mixtures (tubes for tooth paste, shaving cream, etc.). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 2, 1942, p. 7676.)

153. April 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1283, prescribing rigid restrictions in regard to the possession, carrying, and use of firearms and other weapons. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 7, 1942, p. 8023.)

154. May 1, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1252, establishing a monthly minimum wage for government employees, day workers, and mechanics, in harmony with the regulations for privately employed workers set forth in Presidential Decree No. 1104 of April 21, 1942 (see Cuba 143, BULLETIN, July 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 5, 1942, p. 7863.)

155. May 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1331, transferring the Radio Office of the Ministry of Communications to the Ministry of National Defense for the duration of the war, and also establishing in the latter Ministry the National Communications Control Commission (*Comisión de Control Nacional de Comunicaciones*) for coordinating, controlling, and supervising the country's radio communications. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 12, 1942, p. 8315.)

156. May 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1332, placing the organization of Radio Amateurs under jurisdiction of the Ministry of National Defense, in order better to utilize their services as an auxiliary to the official communications system, and requiring that all who desire to continue such activities must become members of the Military or Naval Reserve within twenty days. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 12, 1942, p. 8316.)

157. May 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1356, prescribing measures to be taken with regard to clearance papers for Cuban vessels bound for foreign ports. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 15, 1942, p. 8600.)

158. May 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1357, waiving customs duties for six months on the importation of machinery and equipment of all kinds for the installation of a factory for weaving cotton bags. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 15, 1942, p. 8600.)

159. May 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1366, establishing the office of Price Regulation and Supply (*Oficina de Regulación de Precios y Abastecimiento*) in accordance with Resolution-Laws Nos. 5 and 6 of January 20, 1942, No. 9 of February 4, 1942, and Nos. 11, 12, and 13 of February 5, 1942 (see Cuba 45 and 48, BULLETIN, April 1942, and 55, 58, 59, and 60, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 14, 1942, p. 8567.)

160. May 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1359, incorporating into the Naval Reserve all employees of port headquarters, the Lighthouse and Buoy Service, and the National Observatory, and authorizing the Navy Department to adopt measures regarding the utilization of their services. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 15, 1942, p. 8601.)

161. May 14, 1942. Resolution, Minister of the Interior, prescribing regulations to coordinate the prohibitions against the possession and bearing of firearms (see 153 above) with legal commercial trade in arms and ammunition. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 15, 1942, p. 8599.)

162. May 14, 1942. Resolution, Director General of the Special Public Works Fund (representing the Minister of Commerce), prescribing measures regulating and clarifying Presidential Decree No. 1009 of April 13, 1942 (see Cuba 127, BULLETIN, July 1942), in regard to gasoline rationing. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1942, p. 8826.)

163. May 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1388, suspending for the duration of the war certain restrictions in regard to the importation

of tallow and quebracho extract, both of which are considered defense products. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 18, 1942, p. 8761.)

164. May 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1411, declaring the importation of certain machinery for the establishment of a cotton textile mill in Cuba to be essential to national defense and economy, and authorizing the Ministers of State, Commerce, and Agriculture and the Import-Export Agency to take whatever steps are necessary to facilitate the importation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 21, 1942, p. 8986.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

23. April 14, 1942. Regulation No. 1609, providing that a maximum monthly quota for gasoline and other imported petroleum products be fixed by the National Commission for the Coordination of Petroleum Supplies (*Comité Nacional de Coordinación para el Abastecimiento del Petróleo*), and repealing certain sections of Executive Decree No. 1554 of March 14, 1942 (see Dominican Republic 16, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 15, 1942.)

24. April 18, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1617, placing under government control all real and personal property in the Republic belonging to a specified business firm at Monte Cristi, in accordance with the provisions of Law No. 632 of December 11, 1941 (see Dominican Republic 3, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 22, 1942.)

25. April 21, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1626, placing under official administration the properties of various specified Japanese firms in the Republic. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 25, 1942.)

26. April 27, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1641, delegating additional authority and duties to the National Commission for the Coordination of Petroleum Supplies and further amending Executive Decree No. 1544 of March 14, 1942. (See 23 above.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 29, 1942.)

27. May 12, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1675, creating and describing the duties of the Office of Rice Control (*Oficina para el Control del Arroz*), for the purpose of recommending measures for controlling, in defense of the national economy, the cultivation, preparation, commerce, and exportation of rice. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 14, 1942.)

28. May 12, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1676, creating and describing the duties of the National Commission of Transportation and of Petroleum Control (*Comisión Nacional de Transporte y Control del Petróleo*), for the purpose of coordinating the coun-

try's transportation resources and restricting and coordinating the use of petroleum, and repealing Decrees 1609 and 1641 (see 23 and 26 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 14, 1942.)

29. May 13, 1942. Executive Decree No. 1678, prohibiting, except with special permission, the exportation of live cattle, meats, poultry, eggs, small fruits, and all kinds of provisions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 14, 1942.)

ECUADOR

12a. February 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 309, declaring that the American nations that are at war with extra-continental powers will be considered as nonbelligerents. (*Registro Oficial*, March 31, 1942.)

13. Presidential Decree No. 420. (*Registro Oficial*, April 24, 1942.)

14. (Correction) March 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 486. (*Registro Oficial*, April 25, 1942.)

15. March 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 534, authorizing the organization of the National Guard and prescribing rules and regulations therefor. (*Registro Oficial*, May 6, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

18. March 17, 1942. Executive Decree No. 46, appointing El Salvador's representative on the Inter-American Defense Board. (*Diario Oficial*, March 24, 1942.)

19. April 15, 1942. Bulletin, Treasury Department, in accordance with the powers granted under Executive Decree No. 2 of February 18, 1942 (see El Salvador 11, BULLETIN, June 1942) limiting each month's sales of gasoline, kerosene, and diesel oil to 85% of the sales during the same month in the year 1941 and instructing all importers to turn their sales records over to the Committee on Economic Coordination. (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, April 17, 1942.)

20. April 25, 1942. Announcement by the Committee on Economic Coordination that gasoline ration cards will be issued after May 1, 1942. (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, April 25, 1942.)

21. April 27, 1942. Executive Decree No. 6, setting up rules and regulations for the establishment and operation of radio broadcasting stations. (*Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1942.)

22. April 28, 1942. Congress granted extraordinary powers to the President, authorizing him to carry out transactions with Central American governments in connection with civil and military

defense without having to resort to the customary legal channels. (*New York Times*, April 29, 1942.)

23. April 28, 1942. Executive Decree, issued in accordance with the powers granted under Legislative Decree No. 2 of February 18, 1942 (see El Salvador 11, BULLETIN, June 1942), attaching any stocks of copper wire and cable which industrialists may have on hand for resale or in excess of their needs. (*Diario Oficial*, May 2, 1942.)

GUATEMALA

19. April 24, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 2623, fixing the margin of profit allowed on imported goods. (*El Liberal Progresista*, Guatemala, April 25, 1942.)

20. April 24, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 2624, prohibiting the formation of monopolies among industrialists, importers, and merchants. (*El Liberal Progresista*, Guatemala, April 25, 1942.)

21. May 5, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2749, issued in accordance with the powers granted the President by Legislative Decree No. 2564 (see Guatemala 3, BULLETIN, April 1942), providing that for the duration of the war property owners may not increase present rents. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 5, 1942.)

22. May 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2750, creating the Civic Guard (*Guardia Cívica*), to be composed of volunteers of 50 to 60 years of age, for the purpose of taking over some of the preventive defense work previously handled by the fighting forces of the Army. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 7, 1942.)

HAITI

37. Executive Decree No. 123. (*Le Moniteur*, March 23, 1942.)

38. Executive Decree No. 124. (*Le Moniteur*, March 23, 1942.)

39. April 16, 1942. Executive Decree No. 125, amending Executive Decree No. 112 of February 14, 1942 (see Haiti 29, BULLETIN, June 1942) regarding the organization and functions of the military courts. (*Le Moniteur*, April 20, 1942.)

40. April 23, 1942. Executive Decree No. 126, fixing the minimum price to be paid to cotton growers for their crops. (*Le Moniteur*, April 23, 1942.)

41. April 30, 1942. Executive Decree, regulating the consumption of petroleum products. (*Le Matin*, Port-au-Prince, May 4, 1942.)

42. May 2, 1942. Communiqué, Departments of State for National Economy and for National

Defense, regulating the sale of gasoline in pursuance to the decree of April 30, 1942 (see 41 above). (*Le Matin*, Port-au-Prince, May 4, 1942.)

HONDURAS

11. May 4, 1942. Executive orders in regard to the rationing of gasoline, kerosene, and oil put into effect by local venders. (*El Cronista*, Tegucigalpa, May 4, 1942.)

MEXICO

9a. December 31, 1941. Decree reforming the Organic Law of the Army and Navy and of the Departments of State. (*Diario Oficial*, January 12, 1942.)

27a. April 8, 1942. Executive Order, making applicable to coconut plantations (see Mexico 13, BULLETIN, May 1942) of not more than 300 hectares (about 740 acres) the provisions of the Agrarian Code in regard to the immunity of certain small properties from repartition, settlement, etc. (*Diario Oficial*, May 12, 1942.)

27b. April 15, 1942. Regulation governing the functioning of the Presidential General Staff established by the decree published in the *Diario Oficial* of January 12, 1942 (see 9a above). (*Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1942.)

27c. April 16, 1942. General Regulation governing the Marine Corps, a newly established branch of the Navy. (*Diario Oficial*, May 7, 1942.)

32. April 28, 1942. Decree adding refrigerators of all classes to the list of articles on which exportation was restricted by the Decrees of December 9, 1941, and March 6, 1942 (see Mexico 1a and 21, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, May 8, 1942.)

33. May 7, 1942. Decree amending the decree of July 10, 1941 (see BULLETIN, November 1941, pp. 671-72) by authorizing the exportation of surplus strategic and critical materials to Great Britain, China, and the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, as well as to nations of the Western Hemisphere. (*Diario Oficial*, May 28, 1942.)

34. May 14, 1942. Note sent by the Department of Foreign Affairs to the Axis powers, protesting against the sinking by a submarine belonging to one of those powers of the Mexican oil tanker *Potrero del Llano* in the Gulf of Mexico on May 13, 1942, and demanding complete satisfaction from the responsible country by May 21, 1942. (*Excelsior*, Mexico City, May 15, 1942.)

35. May 21, 1942. Announcement by the Department of Foreign Affairs that the German Government refused to accept Mexico's protest

against the sinking of the Mexican ship *Potero del Llano* and that no response of any kind was received from the Governments of Italy and Japan. (*El Universal*, Mexico City, May 22, 1942.)

36. May 25, 1942. Decree calling the National Congress into special session for the purpose of (1) declaring war against the Axis powers; (2) approving the suspension of constitutional guarantees; and (3) giving the President extraordinary powers to enable him to safeguard national security during the emergency. (*Diario Oficial*, May 27, 1942.)

37. May 28, 1942. Message of the President to the National Congress asking for the declaration of the existence of a state of war, as of May 22, 1942, between the Republic of Mexico and the Axis powers. (*El Universal*, Mexico City, May 29, 1942.)

38. June 1, 1942. Decree authorizing the Executive Power to declare war between Mexico and Germany, Italy, and Japan. (*Diario Oficial*, June 2, 1942.)

39. June 1, 1942. Decree approving the suspension of individual guarantees specified in certain articles of the Constitution. (*Diario Oficial*, June 2, 1942.)

40. June 1, 1942. Decree declaring the existence of a state of war between Mexico and Germany, Italy, and Japan, as of May 22, 1942. (*Diario Oficial*, June 2, 1942.)

NICARAGUA

14. March 12, 1942. Presidential Decree authorizing the addition to the General Budget of several supplementary credits to cover the cost of armaments, road building, etc., expenditures made necessary by the present state of war. (*La Gaceta*, March 17, 1942.)

15. March 19, 1942. Order of the Price and Trade Control Board instructing all importers of certain restricted products from the United States to submit a report of their needs so that Certificates of Necessity may be issued in accordance with the quarterly quotas established by the United States. (*La Prensa*, Managua, March 26, 1942.)

16. March 20, 1942. Order instructing former officers and National Guard members to report to their superiors and to hold themselves in readiness for any emergency. (*La Prensa*, Managua, March 21, 1942.)

17. April 11, 1942. Publication by the Price

and Trade Control Board of Lists 1 and 2 establishing the retail prices for medicinal and pharmaceutical products (see Nicaragua 11, *BULLETIN*, June 1942). (*La Prensa*, Managua, April 12, 1942.)

PANAMA

15. April 27, 1942. Decree No. 184, ordering government seizure (to be followed by just compensation) of all typewriter stocks on hand at local agencies or stores, as a precautionary measure in view of the fact that the United States had suspended exports of typewriters. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, April 28, 1942.)

PARAGUAY

4. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 17, 1942.)

5. Decree-Law No. 11,062. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 17, 1942.)

5a. February 16, 1942. Decree-Law No. 11,068, fixing the scope of the severance of commercial and economic relations with Germany, Italy, and Japan as announced in Decree-Law No. 10,793 (see Paraguay 2, *BULLETIN*, June 1942), particularly with reference to the freezing of Axis funds and the prohibition of any kind of commercial transactions by enemy nationals in the country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, February 17, 1942.)

12. March 6, 1942. Resolution No. 30, General Office of Industry and Commerce, listing the articles of general necessity subject to the provisions of Decree No. 11,394 of March 5, 1942 (see Paraguay 9, *BULLETIN*, July 1942), and prescribing measures regarding the declaration of stocks on hand and the sale of the listed articles. (*El País*, Asunción, March 13, 1942.)

13. March 10, 1942. Decree No. 11,500, making instruction in target shooting obligatory for all citizens of the reserve classes. (*El País*, Asunción, March 12, 1942.)

14. March 11, 1942. Resolution No. 38, General Office of Industry and Commerce, regulating the sale of certain articles specified in Resolution No. 30 of March 6, 1942 (see 12 above). (*El País*, Asunción, March 14, 1942.)

15. March 12, 1942. Decree No. 11,512, prohibiting the exportation of shelled or unshelled peanuts, and of spurge seed except by special permission. (*El País*, Asunción, March 13, 1942.)

16. March 19, 1942. Decree No. 11,636, establishing control over the exportation of quebracho and urunday extract. (*El País*, Asunción, March 21, 1942.)

PERU

9. March 12, 1942. Law No. 9577, granting the President extraordinary powers for the duration of the war so that he may take any steps necessary for continental defense and the fulfillment of agreements made at the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro. (*El Peruano*, April 16, 1942.)
10. March 31, 1942. Presidential decree, prohibiting the export of rubber and its derivatives without permission from the Treasury Department. (*El Peruano*, April 2, 1942.)
11. April 1, 1942. Resolution (Treasury Department), authorizing the Goodyear Tire and Rubber Company to open a factory in Peru for the manufacture of tires, inner tubes, and other rubber products. (*El Peruano*, April 14, 1942.)
12. April 10, 1942. Law No. 9586, prohibiting, under authority granted the President by Law No. 9577 (see 9 above), commercial and financial transactions, with the exception of certain specified banking operations, with the nations signatory to the Tripartite Pact and the territories dominated by them, or with citizens or firms of those nations. (*El Peruano*, April 22, 1942.)
13. April 15, 1942. Presidential decree instructing the General Office of Economy to adopt measures necessary for carrying out the provisions of Law No. 9586 (see 12 above) and to make reports to the Treasury Department. (*El Peruano*, April 17, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

- 91a. March 28, 1942. Executive Order No. 9113, transferring certain facilities and personnel from the Coast and Geodetic Survey to the War and Navy Departments. (*Federal Register*, April 1, 1942.)
- 91b. March 28, 1942. Executive Order No. 9114, withdrawing specified public lands in Alaska for use of the War Department for military purposes. (*Federal Register*, April 1, 1942.)
- 106a. April 13, 1942. Executive Order No. 9128, defining additional functions and duties of the Board of Economic Warfare. (*Federal Register*, April 15, 1942.)
- 106b. April 13, 1942. Executive Order No. 9129, authorizing the United States Maritime Commission to acquire and dispose of property deemed necessary for military, naval, or other war purposes. (*Federal Register*, April 15, 1942.)
- 107a. April 14, 1942. Executive Order No. 9133, transferring certain motor repair shops with their personnel and property and the functions of operations and maintenance thereof from the Civilian Conservation Corps to the War Department. (*Federal Register*, April 17, 1942.)
126. May 4, 1942. Public Law 538 (77th Congress), providing for longevity credit for enlisted men of the Naval Reserve, Marine Corps Reserve, and the National Guard of the United States, and for other purposes.
127. May 9, 1942. Executive Order No. 9157 prescribing regulations, under authority of the Second War Powers Act, 1942 (see United States 89, BULLETIN, June 1942), with respect to making available records, schedules, reports, returns, and other information by the Secretary of Commerce, for use in connection with the conduct of the war. (*Federal Register*, May 13, 1942.)
128. May 11, 1942. Executive Order No. 9158, establishing an Air Medal, with accompanying ribbons, for award to persons in the armed services of the United States who distinguish themselves by meritorious achievement while participating in aerial flight. (*Federal Register*, May 14, 1942.)
129. May 11, 1942. Ration Order No. 5, Office of Price Administration, establishing emergency gasoline rationing regulations for a specified area of 17 Eastern and Southern States and the District of Columbia for the period May 12-June 30, 1942, under authority of Public Law 421 of January 30, 1942 (see United States 42, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Federal Register*, May 12, 1942.)
130. May 13, 1942. Public Law No. 551 (77th Congress), establishing the composition of the United States Navy by increasing the number of under-age vessels by 200,000 tons of combatant ships, authorizing the construction of certain naval vessels, and authorizing an appropriation to be made for these purposes.
131. May 14, 1942. Public Law No. 554 (77th Congress), authorizing the President to establish and organize a Women's Army Auxiliary Corps for service with the Army of the United States.
132. May 15, 1942. Executive Order No. 9163, establishing a Women's Army Auxiliary Corps and providing for its organization into units. (*Federal Register*, May 19, 1942.)
133. May 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 9165, providing for the protection of essential facilities from sabotage and other destructive acts. (*Federal Register*, May 21, 1942.)

134. May 20, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2557, establishing the Padre Island Sea Range Area and prescribing regulations for the control thereof. (*Federal Register*, May 26, 1942.)
135. May 20, 1942. Executive Order No. 9168, establishing the Matagorda Bay Defensive Sea Area. (*Federal Register*, May 23, 1942.)
136. May 20, 1942. Executive Order No. 9169, directing the Secretary of the Navy to relinquish possession of the plants of the Brewster Aeronautical Corporation (see United States 111, BULLETIN, July 1942). (*Federal Register*, May 23, 1942.)
137. May 20, 1942. Clarification and interpretation of Executive Order No. 9128 of April 13, 1942 (see 106a above), in respect of certain functions of the Department of State and the Board of Economic Warfare. (*Federal Register*, May 23, 1942.)
138. May 21, 1942. Executive Order No. 9171, enlarging the United States Naval Radio Station, Summit, Canal Zone. (*Federal Register*, May 23, 1942.)
139. May 22, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2558, designating June 30, 1942, as the Fifth Registration Day, for the registration of all male citizens of the United States and all other male persons residing in Continental United States, the Territories of Alaska and Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, between the ages of 18 and 20 years, pursuant to the provisions of the Selective Training and Service Act, as amended. (*Federal Register*, May 26, 1942.)
140. June 5, 1942. Public Law 563 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution declaring that a state of war exists between the Government of Bulgaria and the Government and the people of the United States and making provisions to prosecute the same.
141. June 5, 1942. Public Law 564 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution declaring that a state of war exists between the Government of Hungary and the Government and the people of the United States and making provisions to prosecute the same.
142. June 5, 1942. Public Law 565 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution declaring that a state of war exists between the Government of Rumania and the Government and the people of the United States and making provisions to prosecute the same.
15. March 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1433/940, limiting the number of pages of daily

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- papers and the number of pages, size, and frequency of supplements, on account of decreased imports of newsprint resulting from shortage of shipping space. (*Diario Oficial*, March 26, 1942.)
16. March 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 100/941, fixing sugar prices. (*Diario Oficial*, March 27, 1942.)
17. March 21, 1942. Presidential decree, prescribing measures to be taken for improving the sanitary defense of the country. (*Diario Oficial*, April 10, 1942.)
18. March 26, 1942. Executive Resolution No. 4016, prescribing measures for preventing the sale, transfer, or exportation of airplanes inscribed in the National Airplane Registry (*Registro Nacional de Aeronaves*). (*Diario Oficial*, April 14, 1942.)
19. March 26, 1942. Executive Resolution No. 4017, approving an accelerated plan of study for merchant pilots. (*Diario Oficial*, April 14, 1942.)
20. March 26, 1942. Executive Resolution No. 4287/940, giving a specified German school in Peñarol a period of ten days in which to adjust its study programs to existing national educational laws and regulations. (*Diario Oficial*, April 14, 1942.)
21. March 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 8087/931, authorizing an increase in the price of gasoline and increasing again a tax on gasoline and oil that had been reduced. (*Diario Oficial*, April 9, 1942.)
22. March 27, 1942. Presidential Decree, prescribing regulations in regard to stocks on hand and distribution of structural iron. (*Diario Oficial*, April 13, 1942.)
23. March 27, 1942. Presidential Decree, prescribing standards for the equitable distribution of iron imported by the Government. (*Diario Oficial*, April 13, 1942.)
24. April 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1183/940, authorizing the Bank of the Republic (*Banco de la República*) to use, from the present time until six months after the termination of the war, up to the sum of 7 million pesos to facilitate the procurement of combustibles and raw materials for national consumption. (*Diario Oficial*, April 17, 1942.)
25. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree, adding petroleum lubricants to the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, April 20, 1942.)
26. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree, adding tires to the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, April 20, 1942.)

27. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree, adding wire to the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, April 20, 1942.)

28. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree, adding bran and shorts to the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, April 20, 1942.)

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26. April 11, 1942. Resolution, Ministry of Development, adding chlorine to the list of articles of prime necessity in respect of maximum price regulations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, April 11, 1942.)

27. April 30, 1942. Resolution No. 13, National Price Regulation Board, establishing maximum prices for the sale of specified medicinal products. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 2, 1942.)

28. May 7, 1942. Decree No. 93, restricting throughout the Republic specified constitutional guarantees and giving the National Price Regulation Board authority to regulate the supply and distribution of articles of prime necessity, organize and coordinate transportation facilities, and take other steps considered necessary in the present emergency. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 7, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

2a. February 23, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Great Britain, made under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, on the principles applying to mutual aid in the prosecution of the war and cooperation in the settlement of post-war problems. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, February 28, 1942.)

9a. April 4, 1942. Joint announcement by the United States Department of State, the War Production Board, and the Board of Economic Warfare, of a list of commodities allocated to the other American Republics for the second quarter of 1942, comprising the following materials: Acetic acid, acetone, aconite, ammonium sulphate, anhydrous ammonia, aniline, camphor, carbon tetrachloride, castor oil, caustic soda, chlorine, copper, cotton linters, dibutyl phthalate, electrodes, farm equipment, formaldehyde, glycerin, leather, ferro-manganese, methanol, molybdenum, neat's-foot oil, phenol, phosphorus, phthalic anhydride, plastics, potash salts, potassium permanganate, rayon, red squill, household electric refrigerators, soda ash, strontium chemicals, sulphuric acid, superphosphate, tanning materials, toluol, tricresyl phosphate, light trucks, tungsten

and ferro-tungsten, ferro-vanadium, and wood pulp. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, April 4, 1942.)

16. May 4, 1942. Joint announcement by the United States Department of State, the War Production Board, and the Board of Economic Warfare, of a supplementary list of commodities allocated to the American Republics for the second quarter of 1942 (see 9a above), comprising the following materials: Iron and steel; lead; natural amorphous graphite; fluorspar; uranium salts and compounds; ascorbic acid; thiamine hydrochloride; sulfanilamide; sulfaguanidine; cranes, hoists, and derricks; and mechanical household refrigerators. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, May 9, 1942.)

17. May 18, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of Panama and the United States covering the use by the armed forces of the United States of numerous defense areas in the Republic of Panama. (See BULLETIN, July 1942, pp. 408-411.) (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, May 23, 1942.)

18. June 2, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and China, made under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, obligating the United States to continue lend-lease aid to China and bringing that nation into discussions on post-war economic conditions. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, June 6, 1942.)

19. June 9, 1942. Announcement, made jointly in London by Prime Minister Winston Churchill and in Washington by President Roosevelt, of the creation by Great Britain and the United States of a Combined Production and Resources Board and a Combined Food Board, charged respectively with uniting the production programs of the United States and the United Kingdom into a single integrated program adjusted to the strategic requirements of the war and the best utilization of the food resources of all the United Nations. (*Washington Post*, June 10, 1942.)

20. June 11, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, made under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, providing for reciprocal assistance in winning the war and for cooperation in practical post-war measures to create a new and better world. (*Press Release*, United States Department of State, June 11, 1942.)

Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

Inter-American Committee on Tropical Agriculture

At the meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union on June 4, 1941, approval was given to the report of the Inter-American Committee on Tropical Agriculture on the establishment of the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences. In accordance with a resolution approved at the Eighth American Scientific Congress, the Governing Board on June 5, 1940, appointed a Committee of its members to work out the organization of the Institute. The Committee has been meeting frequently and giving careful consideration to various ways and means for giving the resolution practical and effective application.

The by-laws approved as part of the Committee's report fix the Institute's main office in Washington, with such supplementary offices in other American countries as may later be designated. Until a treaty or convention is signed, the governing body of the Institute will be the twenty-one members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, while administration will be entrusted to a director and a secretary. Each of the American Republics represented in the Institute will have the right to appoint an agricultural expert to be its representative on a Technical Advisory Council, charged with considering questions of general policy pertaining to the advancement of education and science.

The business and objectives of the Institute will be to encourage and ad-

vance education and sciences in the American Republics through teaching, research, experimentation, extension activities, and general training in the science and art of agriculture and other arts and sciences. It is expected that the Institute will establish experiment stations, farms, ranches, laboratories, and educational centers in many or all of the American Republics. A number of countries have offered sites and technical experts of the United States Department of Agriculture have visited the proffered locations to determine which will best meet the purposes of the Institute. The initial expenses of organization, including construction of buildings and preliminary operations, will be met out of a grant of \$465,000 to be made available by the Government of the United States through the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, upon request of the Pan American Union.

Regulations of Meetings of Foreign Ministers

At the same meeting of the Governing Board the report of the Special Committee on the Regulations of the Meetings of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics was approved. The report recommended certain modifications in the regulations in order to authorize the designation of a substitute when a Minister of Foreign Affairs himself is unable to attend a meeting of consultation, and to permit technical advisers accompanying ministers at the meetings to attend

plenary and committee sessions, not, however, conceding them the right to vote.

Codification of International Law

The report of the Special Committee of the Governing Board on the Codification of International Law was also approved at the meeting of June 4. The report took up the question of the term of office of members of the Committee of Experts on Codification who were originally appointed in pursuance to Resolution LXX of the Seventh International Conference of American States. It was recommended to the governments that present members of the Committee, whose terms would expire in 1942, continue to hold office until the Ninth International Conference of American States meets, in order that there may be no interruption to their work.

Glossary of Technical Terms

Another report to which the Governing Board gave its approval at the same meeting was submitted by the Special Committee on the Preparation of a Glossary of Technical Terms.

The Fourth Pan American Highway Congress, held at Mexico City in September 1941, adopted a resolution on the preparation of a glossary of technical terms used in highway and bridge construction and soil stabilization, in order to achieve uniformity in the use as well as in the meaning of the terms employed in the several languages and in the different

countries, members of the Pan American Union. Final approval of the glossary will be entrusted to a Pan American Institute of Technical Terms, made up of recognized authorities selected from the universities and scientific institutions of the American continent. The Pan American Union was requested to cooperate in the establishment of the Institute, but as a preliminary step, it was thought desirable that a survey be undertaken of what has already been done and a project compiled to serve as a basis of discussion.

This report of the Governing Board's special committee therefore recommended that the Pan American Highway Confederation be requested to undertake such a survey and that, in consultation with the various national bodies, technical associations, and individuals in the several countries, it prepare the glossary in the several languages.

Recent Inter-American Conferences

Two conferences convoked by the Pan American Union as a result of resolutions passed by Meetings of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, have recently been held. The first, the meeting of the Emergency Advisory Committee for the Political Defense of the Continent, assembled at Montevideo on April 15, 1942, and the second, the Inter-American Conference on the Coordination of Police and Judicial Measures, convened at Buenos Aires on May 27, 1942. A more extended account of these meetings will be given in the next issue.

Pan American News

Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control

The Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, meeting in plenary session at the Pan American Union on May 22, 1942, set June 30 as the opening date for a two-weeks conference of banking and financial representatives of the American Republics, thereby giving effect to Resolutions V and VI adopted at the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro in January 1942. These two resolutions recommended respectively the severance of commercial and financial relations with the nations signatory to the Tripartite Pact and the convoking of "a conference of representatives of the central banks or equivalent or analogous institutions of the American Republics for the purpose of drafting standards of procedure for the uniform handling of bank credits, collections, contracts of lease and consignments of merchandise, involving real or juridical persons who are nationals of a State which has committed an act of aggression against the American Continent."

The agenda of the conference, prepared by the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, is as follows:

To give effect to the purposes of the Conference as set forth in Resolutions V and VI of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held at Rio de Janeiro, two committees shall be appointed to consider, among others, the following topics:

COMMITTEE I.—INTERNATIONAL TRANSACTIONS

Measures to be adopted by the Governments of the American Republics, including legislative or executive action, methods of administering

financial or other controls, and cooperative action among the American Republics in furtherance of the following objectives;

1. Cutting off of financial and commercial transactions:

- (a) With nations which have committed an act of aggression against the American Continent, and nations dominated by them;
- (b) With other nations outside the Western Hemisphere, when of benefit to nations which have committed an act of aggression against the American Continent; and
- (c) Within the Western Hemisphere, when of benefit to nations which have committed an act of aggression against the American Continent.

2. Regulation of the international movement of securities and currencies, in order that such movement will not benefit nations which have committed an act of aggression against the American Continent.

COMMITTEE II.—DOMESTIC TRANSACTIONS

Measures to be adopted by the Governments of the American Republics, including legislative or executive action, methods of administering financial or other controls, and cooperative action among the American Republics to eliminate the activities within the Western Hemisphere of real or juridical persons whose operations are inimical to the security of the Hemisphere. The measures to be considered shall include:

- (a) blocking of accounts;
- (b) use of interventors;
- (c) action by alien property custodians;
- (d) forced sale of assets;
- (e) in certain cases, seizure of property.

Credits authorized by the Export-Import Bank

AMONG recent credits authorized by the Export-Import Bank of Washington are two granted to Latin American countries—Chile and Venezuela.

On May 22, 1942 the Secretary of Commerce of the United States announced

that the Export-Import Bank of Washington and *La Corporación de Fomento de la Producción* had signed formal documents adding \$5,000,000 to the \$12,000,000 already granted to Chile in June, 1940, for purchases in the United States. The increase was agreed upon in 1941, but execution of the final documents had to await the necessary legislative and executive action in Chile.

The Secretary of Commerce also published a statement on June 1, 1942 to the effect that the Export-Import Bank had authorized the extension of a line of credit of up to \$20,000,000 to the Government of Venezuela to finance a program of public works in that country. Negotiations preliminary to the approval of the credit were initiated during the Rio de Janeiro conference of last January when Dr. Alfredo Machado Hernández, Minister of the Treasury of Venezuela, and Mr. Warren Lee Pierson, President of the Export-Import Bank, discussed the subject. A definitive agreement must await action by the National Congress of Venezuela.

Trade treaty between Argentina and Peru

On January 10, 1942, at Buenos Aires, representatives of Argentina and Peru signed a trade treaty which, it is generally anticipated, will mark the initiation of a new period of close communication between the two countries.

Although trade had been increasing and developing between the two nations, up until the signing of the new treaty they lacked a stable statute to consolidate their economic relations. Therefore, the purpose of the new document is primarily to place their commercial interchange on a strict basis of equality.

The treaty provides that each nation shall grant the other unconditional and

unrestricted most-favored-nation treatment, with certain specific exceptions, in all matters concerning customs duties and subsidiary charges, customs rules and regulations, handling of imports and exports, navigation, and treatment of nationals. There are to be no prohibitions or restrictions on imports and exports between the two countries unless they are the same as those applied to products of other countries under the same circumstances, or unless they relate to public security; traffic in arms, ammunition, or implements of war; gold or silver in coin or specie; fiscal or police measures intended to extend to foreign products the system imposed in the interior of the country on similar national products; or unless they are imposed for the protection of the public health and of national treasures of artistic, historic, or archaeological value.

For the better coordination of relations between Argentina and Peru with respective adjacent countries, the most-favored-nation treatment will not apply to three specific types of transaction: tariff preferences or special advantages granted or which may in future be granted by either country to adjacent countries; favors granted by one of the contracting parties to adjacent nations in order to facilitate frontier traffic; and advantages arising out of a customs union concluded by one of the contracting parties with other nations.

As a result of the treaty, trade relations between the two signatory nations are expected to increase. In a statement made after the signing of the treaty, Dr. Enrique Ruiz Guiñazú, Argentine Foreign Minister, said: "Without taking into account the petroleum exports whereby Peru supplements our insufficient production, she is in a position to ship us considerable quantities of tobacco, sulphur, guano, special types of cotton fiber, tagua, coal, fresh

fruit, and many other products. Argentina's production of grain, butter, fresh and tinned meat, hides, and various industrial products in turn may cover a large proportion of Peruvian requirements." The agreement is regarded as being particularly opportune in view of present trade limitations resulting from World War II.

Trade agreement between Chile and Mexico

A new trade treaty was signed at Mexico City on March 23, 1942, between the Governments of Chile and Mexico. It provides for unconditional, unrestricted most-favored-nation treatment between the two nations in all matters concerning customs charges, duties, rules, and regulations.

Raw materials and manufactured products of either country are not to be submitted to any duties, levies, or charges that differ from those applied to the same or similar products from other countries. Excepted from these provisions are tariff preferences now in effect or that may become effective between either of the contracting nations and adjacent nations (Cuba being considered in this respect as a nation adjacent to Mexico); and favors resulting from customs unions contracted by either country with a third country. These exceptions, however, will not extend to certain specified products of both countries. For Mexico these products are henequen fibers; henequen, ixtle, and lechugilla bags; peanuts; *raíz de zacatón* (a fiber); leaf tobacco; cotton textiles; refined zinc and lead; petroleum and its derivatives; and pharmaceutical products; and for Chile they are: red, white, and sparkling wines in any kind of container; malt; barley; paprika; ground

oats; agricultural fertilizers; washed and unwashed wool; sulphur; pharmaceutical and biological products; and sodic and potassic salts for industrial uses. Restrictions and prohibitions on exports and imports between the two countries may be extended in matters relating to public safety; traffic in arms, ammunition, and materials of war, with Chilean nitrate being excepted from the latter category; protection of the public health and of plants and animals from disease, parasites, and epidemics; gold and silver in coin or specie; the protection of national artistic, historic, or archaeological treasures; and, generally, fiscal or police measures adopted to extend to foreign products the rules and regulations applied to similar domestic ones.

The agreement went into effect immediately upon its signature and will remain so for one year. At the end of that time it will continue in effect indefinitely, until three months after notification by one of the contracting governments to the other of its desire to terminate the agreement.

Curb on publication of statistics in the Americas

In plenary session on May 28, 1942, the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee adopted a resolution (No. XXVI) recommending to all the American Republics that adequate steps be taken to suspend the publication of statistical data on production, foreign trade, financial and monetary information, customs legislation, and other reports on inter-American commerce which, by lending aid or comfort to hostile powers, might jeopardize national or continental interests.

There are, the resolution stated, at least three ways in which a country's statistical data might aid or benefit the enemy: first,

when they provide such a power with information concerning places that might be attacked; second, when they provide the key to the military strategy of the nation issuing the statistics; and third, when the statistical information helps the hostile powers to prosecute economic warfare.

Stressing the need for a coordinated continental policy in the matter, inasmuch as the action of one government in suppressing statistical information would be nullified if the same or similar data were made generally available by another country, the resolution embodied these three recommendations to the Governments of the American Republics:

FIRST: That under the present circumstances it would be advisable to discontinue the publication of statistical data which any Government or Governments of the Western Hemisphere may deem harmful to their national interests or to those of the Continent.

SECOND: That each Government of the American Republics notify the Governments of the other American Republics, through the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, concerning the measures it has taken, or hereafter may adopt and put into effect, to withhold the publication of statistics.

THIRD: That each Government, upon receiving the notification mentioned in Recommendation Two above, adopt such measures as may be necessary to withhold from any person within its jurisdiction, other than those specially authorized and officials who may be called upon to use the statistics for official purposes, access to the information suppressed by the notifying country; it being further recommended that the measures adopted by each country thus notified be, as far as possible, parallel as to form, scope, and purpose, to those of the country which issued the notification.

Mexican-United States petroleum agreement

The following is the text, as released by the United States Department of State, of the agreement reached by the two experts appointed in accordance with the Agree-

ment of November 19, 1941, between the United States and Mexico:¹

FRANKLIN DELANO ROOSEVELT,

President of the United States of America.

MANUEL ÁVILA CAMACHO,

President of the United Mexican States.

SIRS:

As provided in the exchange of notes dated November 19, 1941, between His Excellency Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, and His Excellency Francisco Castillo Nájera, Mexican Ambassador to the United States, the undersigned were appointed by our respective Governments as experts authorized to determine according to "equity and justice" for purposes of indemnification the compensation to be paid the nationals of the United States of America whose properties, rights or interests in the petroleum industry were affected to their detriment by acts of the Government of Mexico subsequent to March 17, 1938, and in respect of which no settlement has heretofore been effected.

Expropriation, and the exercise of the right of eminent domain, under the respective constitutions and laws of Mexico and the United States, are a recognized feature of the sovereignty of all modern States.

We have surveyed the works and lands involved and studied the records of the properties, rights and interests appertaining thereto and have mutually agreed that their value, as of March 18, 1938, should be fixed in the sum of \$23,995,991, covering all elements of tangible and intangible value, allocated as follows:

Standard Oil of New Jersey group, \$18,391,641:

1. Huasteca Petroleum Company;
2. Mexican Petroleum Company;
3. Tuxpam Petroleum Company;
4. Pamiagua Petroleum Company;
5. Compañía Petrolera Ulises, S. A.;
6. Compañía Transcontinental de Petr6leo, S. A.;
7. Compañía Petrolera Minerva, S. A.

Standard Oil of California group, \$3,589,158:

1. California Standard Oil Company of Mexico, S. A.;
 2. Richmond Petroleum Company.
- Consolidated Oil Company, \$630,151:
1. Consolidated Oil Company of Mexico, S. A.;
 2. Compañía Franco Española, S. A.;

¹ See BULLETIN, January 1942, p. 47, and BULLETIN, March 1942, p. 172.

3. Compañía Petrolera Aldamas y Brava, S. A.

Sabalo group, \$897,671:

1. Sabalo Transportation Company;
2. Compañía Petrolera "Claripa", S. A.;
3. Compañía Petrolera Cacalilao, S. A.

Seaboard group, \$487,370:

1. Internacional Petroleum Company;
2. Compañía Internacional de Petróleo y Oleoductos, S. A.

Therefore, according to the said Oil Agreement of November 19, 1941, it is our joint judgment that:

1. The Government of the United Mexican States shall pay to the Government of the United States of America, on behalf of the above-mentioned claimants, the amount of \$23,995,991, in accordance with schedule of payments finally approved by the two Governments.

2. Before any payment is made on account of these awards the corporations affected shall deposit in escrow and, when final payment has been made, shall deliver to the Government of Mexico all documents and instruments of title pertaining to the expropriated properties.

3. The Government of Mexico and each of the said claimants shall release each other respectively of all reciprocal claims that may still be pending against one another, with the exception of those of the Mexican Government against the companies for unpaid taxes and duties, as well as those based on payments legally made by the Mexican Government for the account of the said companies.

The Mexican Government will assume liability for all private claims which may be instituted after this date by private individuals against these companies as a result of expropriation, but not for the private claims against these companies now pending before the Mexican courts.

4. Recommendation is hereby made that the amount determined be paid as follows: One-third on July 1, 1942, and the balance in five (5) equal annual installments, payable on July 1 of each subsequent year.

5. All balances as shown to be due these said claimants on the several dates prescribed shall bear interest at the rate of 3% per year dating from March 18, 1938.

Done in duplicate, in both Spanish and English, on this date April 17, 1942.

MORRIS L. COOK

MANUEL J. ZEVEDA

Representing the United
States of America.

Representing the Republic
of Mexico."

Census in Panama, 1940

The Census Office of Panama recently made public the data compiled in the first tabulation of the general census of population of September 1940. The tables shown below give preliminary figures for the entire Republic by Provinces and those for the larger towns, in accordance with the territorial divisions in effect at the time the census was taken. The population in 1940 is also compared with the figures for 1911, 1920, and 1930.

In the 1940 census distinction was made for the first time between the civil and the Indian population. The reasons for this are obvious. The Indians, especially those called *bravos* in Darién and the Guaymies in Chiriquí and Bocas del Toro, make up groups so separated from the rest of the population and maintain so different a social structure that, in the case of some tribes, it is almost impossible to approach them and collect demographic data such as are obtained elsewhere in the country. Naturally, there are some Indians living in the towns, but these are very few and have been registered along with the civil population. The figures quoted for the Indian population refer, therefore, only to the Indians who live in tribes.

In Panama's four censuses, data on the Indians have been compiled by such different methods that comparison of total population figures is made very difficult. The civil population statistics, on the other hand, have been handled with more uniformity, although not always with equal minuteness—and uniformity of reporting is of course indispensable for purposes of comparison. In spite of these handicaps, however, it is possible to make some general comparisons. Table 1 shows, for example, that between 1911 and 1920 there was a population increase of more than 32 percent, almost $\frac{1}{3}$ of the total.

On the other hand, from 1920 to 1930 the increase was less than 5 percent, and in 1940 it rose again by 35 percent. It is obvious that Panama's geographic location affects its demographic problems. The period from 1911 to 1920 was one of activity during and following construction of the Canal, and it was therefore a time of marked immigration. Sanitary conditions, too, were beginning to show noticeable improvement, at least in the cities of Panamá and Colón, with an immediate effect on public health. The decade 1920-1930—the period of adjustment following the World War—was a time of limited immigration, and the small population increase during those years represented primarily an increase in the birth rate. It should be noted, too, in respect to total population figures, that in 1930 there was evidently a faulty census of the Indians, especially in Bocas del Toro, Chiriquí, and Colón.

The same circumstances that prevailed

at the time of the 1920 census appeared again, generally speaking, in 1940. There was new construction in the Canal Zone and a general improvement in economic conditions, even though the latter had not reached a climax when the 1940 census was taken. The increase in population in 1940 is also explained by the fact that the *de facto* population was registered; that is, all the people who actually passed the night of September 8, 1940, in Panamanian territory or on waters under Panamanian jurisdiction. Previous census figures were based merely on the *de jure* population; that is, the people residing in the place at the time the census was taken. Therefore, the 1940 figures include a transient population that was not counted in previous records. The provinces of Colón, Chiriquí, and Panamá, and the cities of Colón, Panamá, and David show increases worthy of study because they constitute indexes of the social changes that took place during the decade.

TABLE I.—*Population of the Republic of Panama, by Provinces*

(Censuses of 1911, 1920, 1930, and 1940)

Province	Population				Difference in percentage		
	1911	1920	1930	1940	1911 1920	1920 1930	1930 1940
Republic of Panama . . .	336, 742	446, 098	467, 459	631, 637	32. 5	4. 8	35. 1
Bocas del Toro ¹	22, 732	27, 239	15, 851	25, 496	19. 8	—41. 8	60. 8
Coclé	35, 011	45, 151	48, 244	55, 737	29. 0	6. 9	15. 5
Colón ¹	32, 092	58, 250	57, 161	78, 119	81. 5	—1. 9	36. 7
Chiriquí ¹	63, 364	76, 470	76, 918	111, 294	20. 7	0. 6	44. 7
Darién ²	8, 992	10, 728	13, 391	14, 930	19. 3	24. 8	11. 5
Herrera ³	23, 007	28, 984	31, 030	38, 118	26. 0	7. 1	22. 8
Los Santos	30, 075	34, 638	41, 218	49, 621	15. 2	19. 0	20. 4
Panamá	61, 855	98, 035	114, 103	173, 328	58. 5	16. 4	51. 9
Veraguas	59, 614	66, 603	69, 543	84, 994	11. 7	4. 4	22. 2

¹ In the Census of 1930 the registering of the Indians was faulty, especially in the Provinces of Bocas del Toro, Colón, and Chiriquí. Also, between 1930 and 1940 there were Indian migrations from the Province of Veraguas towards Chiriquí Grande in Bocas del Toro.

² The Province of Darién was created by Law 22 of December 27, 1922. Until that time the area covered by this Province had been a part of the Province of Panamá. The figures given here for the censuses of 1911 and 1920 correspond, therefore, to the population of that area in the Province of Panamá. The 1920 Census of Darién was completed by order of Executive Decree No. 11 of February 4, 1924.

³ The Province of Herrera was created by Law 17 of January 18, 1915. Until that time the area covered by this Province was part of the Province of Los Santos. The figure given here for the 1911 Census corresponds, therefore, to the population of that area in the Province of Los Santos.

TABLE II.—*Civil and Indian Population, by Provinces*

[1940 Census]

Province	Total	Civil Population	Indian Population
Republic of Panama	631, 637	566, 677	64, 960
Bocas del Toro.....	25, 496	9, 949	15, 547
Coclé.....	55, 737	55, 737
Colón.....	78, 119	57, 297	20, 822
Chiriquí.....	111, 294	92, 159	19, 135
Darién.....	14, 930	8, 279	6, 651
Herrera.....	38, 118	38, 118
Los Santos.....	49, 621	49, 621
Panamá.....	173, 328	171, 999	1, 329
Veraguas.....	84, 994	83, 518	1, 476

TABLE III.—*Population of the principal cities*

(Censuses of 1930 and 1940)

Cities	1940	1930	Difference	
			Absolute	Percentage
1. Panamá.....	111, 893	74, 409	37, 484	50. 4
2. Colón.....	44, 393	29, 765	14, 628	49. 1
3. David.....	9, 222	5, 041	4, 181	82. 9
4. Chitré.....	4, 790	4, 095	695	17. 0
5. La Chorrera.....	4, 345	2, 112	2, 233	105. 7
6. Santiago.....	4, 253	2, 213	2, 040	92. 2
7. Puerto Armuelles.....	3, 328	706	2, 622	371. 4
8. Aguadulce.....	2, 829	2, 500	329	13. 2
9. Penonomé.....	2, 418	3, 206	—788	—24. 6
10. La Concepción.....	2, 162	1, 779	383	21. 5
11. Las Tablas.....	2, 127	1, 896	231	12. 2
12. Bocas del Toro.....	2, 101	2, 337	—236	—10. 1

Soil conservation in Mexico

A recent Mexican decree authorized the establishment of a new Department of Soil Conservation as a subsidiary of the National Irrigation Commission. Its duties will be to study soil erosion problems and to formulate plans for both irrigated and unirrigated cultivated areas for the purpose of preventing erosion, maintaining soil fertility, and achieving the best possible production results from the land.

It was recognized by agricultural experts that Mexico had for a long time been losing a great part of its agricultural wealth because of a general neglect of the land, particularly in regions where rains are abundant and where the land is steeply sloped. Wind and rain have taken heavy tolls in many areas, but it is hoped that when modern soil conservation technique is put into operation, further damage may be prevented and much land reclaimed for useful purposes.

Inter-American cooperation in botany

Brother León (Joseph Sylvestre Sauget y Barbier), for many years a professor on the staff of the Colegio de la Salle, Vedado, Habana, Cuba, has been honored by the receipt of a special grant from the Milton Fund, Harvard University, to be utilized by him in preparing for publication a comprehensive work on the flora of Cuba. This grant is for a period of two years.

Throughout his long residence in Cuba, Brother León has devoted a vast amount of time to accumulating data on the flora of that Republic, and his wide experience has eminently fitted him to consummate the task to which he has set his hand. Some years ago, in recognition of his accomplishment as a botanist, he was the recipient of an honorary Sc.D. from Columbia University.

In 1938 Brother León was appointed collaborator on the staff of the Atkins Institution of the Arnold Arboretum, Harvard University, in appreciation of his botanical accomplishments. As evidence of the furtherance of the cooperative work on the flora of Cuba between Harvard and other institutions, there may be mentioned the recently published, copiously illustrated volume of 496 pages by Brother León and Brother Marie-Victorin, entitled *Itinéraires botaniques dans l'île de Cuba*, issued in 1942 by the Botanical Laboratory of the University of Montreal. Publication was made possible through a liberal subvention to the University of Montreal, through the Atkins Institution. The Milton Fund grant to Brother León is further evidence of interest in this field of international cooperation. Since it is the first time that a grant from this fund has been made available for expenditure through an institution outside of the

United States, it forms an excellent illustration of inter-American collaboration.

Press Congress in Mexico

The First Mexican National and Pan American Press Congress was formally opened on May 15, 1942, at Mexico City, by the President of the Republic, General Manuel Ávila Camacho.

Over a hundred delegates representing the press of Mexico and fourteen other countries of the continent were in attendance. Among the several speakers at the inaugural ceremonies was Dr. Ezequiel Padilla, Minister of Foreign Affairs, who, calling to mind that the Congress was meeting at one of the most solemn moments in history, hailed the journalists as defenders of justice, freedom, and human dignity.

Organized in recognition of the fact that the mission of the American press, above all at this critical time, is to contribute to continental unity and to cooperate by every possible means to hasten the triumph of the democratic cause, the Congress dedicated itself to a study of governmental relations with the press and of means for efficiently counteracting pro-Axis propaganda in the Americas.

A twelve-point Code of Honor for the American Press was adopted, touching upon such subjects as the duty of the press to distinguish clearly between its informative and its ideological or directing functions; the honest and efficient fulfillment of the informative function by presenting true and objective information and refraining, whenever possible, from the publication of unconfirmed news; and the abstention from publishing material that might promote vice and crime. Another section of the Code referred to the duty of all newspapers of the Americas to refuse to

publish direct or indirect, open or disguised comments favorable to Nazi-Fascist ideas or activities.

The Congress closed with a final session in the Palace of Fine Arts on May 20, 1942.

National Conservatory in the Dominican Republic

The Dominican Republic's new National Conservatory of Music and Declamation was officially inaugurated at Ciudad Trujillo on April 17, 1942. Among the large audience that attended the ceremonies and heard the initial program of music and addresses were the President of the Republic, Dr. M. de J. Troncoso; the Secretary of Education and Fine Arts, Señor Víctor Garrido; and the Secretary of the Presidency, Señor Andrés Pastoriza.

The Conservatory, which has been organized and will be conducted along the most modern technical lines, has an able teaching staff of eminent national and foreign artists, and by the time its doors were opened a large number of students had already been enrolled. The Conservatory's program of activity contemplates making it not only an institution of musical education of the first quality, but also a cultural center for the entire Republic.

Vocational schools to be established in Ecuador

The Government of Ecuador recently adopted a decree which will, it is hoped, help materially toward solving the grave social, economic, and administrative problems created by the country's excess of school teachers. For some time past Ecuador's rural normal schools have annually been graduating more and more young men and women prepared for teaching, but unfortunately the country's resources have

not yet permitted the establishment of schools on a scale to give employment to so many teachers, and even such measures as made jobs or enforced retirement of older teachers could not supply any appreciable remedy to the situation.

The new decree provides for the gradual elimination of teacher's preparatory courses in all of the rural normal schools except that of Uyumbicho and the substitution therefor of vocational schools that will prepare young people for other practical and useful trades and activities that will be more in demand in their respective environments. For the current scholastic year (1941-42) no new registrations were to be accepted for the teaching courses, although students who had already had a year or more of such training would be allowed to finish them. The funds saved through the elimination of the teaching courses were to be put into a special fund for the purchase of supplies and equipment for the new vocational schools.

Notes on education in Bolivia

In March there was opened in La Paz, under the auspices of the Ministry of Health, a National School for Visiting Nurses. The Ministry of Health is trying to interest as many as possible in the school, which is open to women between the ages of 17 and 25. It is under the direction of Srta. Amelia Zelaya, who studied in Panama, assisted by a staff of specialists. In addition to offering free instruction and board the school will, with the aid of the Government, help its graduates to secure positions. The establishment of a School for Visiting Nurses marks a step forward in social service work in Bolivia.

Among the Indian school centers now functioning in the Department of Potosí that of Alcatuyo stands out. It has a

main school and five branches, situated on the more populous ranches in the communities of Mansaja, Alcatuyo, and Huaica, and attended by about 600 children. The educational and work systems are adapted to a rural educational plan, which is entirely Indian in character, its aim being to secure the integration of the Indian in national life as a producer and consumer. The plan is to use the natural resources of the region as a laboratory and guide the students in a practical manner towards productivity and progress.

The Bolivian Government decreed that, beginning in February 1942, there should be Catholic religious instruction in all Bolivian schools, in the belief that religious principles form the basis and support of a fine patriotic spirit as well as the strongest groundwork for that human solidarity which insures peace among men. Parents who do not wish to have their children attend classes in religion are at liberty to have them excused.

Interment of Carranza in the Monument of the Revolution

On February 5, 1942, the remains of Don Venustiano Carranza, First Chief of the Constitutional Revolution and Constitutional President of the Republic of Mexico from May 1, 1917, until his assassination on May 21, 1920, were taken to a final resting place in the Monument of the Revolution in Mexico City. It was indeed fitting that the ceremonies honoring President Carranza were held on February 5, for it was the twenty-fifth anniversary of the promulgation of the Constitution of 1917. That Constitution, which is the one in effect, was written by the Constituent Assembly that Carranza himself called together in Querétaro at the end of 1916 and beginning of 1917, and it embodied many of the social and economic reforms that he favored while leader of the Revolutionary forces against General Victoriano Huerta.

NECROLOGY

MARCELO T. DE ALVEAR.—Argentine statesman and ex-president. Graduated from University of Buenos Aires with degree of doctor of jurisprudence and entered upon practice of his profession. Participated in the revolutions of 1890, 1893, and 1905; lieutenant colonel in the reserve army; one of the founders of the Civic Radical Union; former chairman of the Workingmen's Housing Commission. Member of the Chamber of Deputies, 1912-17. Minister and later Ambassador to France, 1917-22. President of the Republic, 1922-28. Chief of the reorgani-

zation of the radical movement, 1930. Member of various social and military clubs. Died at the age of 73 years at Buenos Aires on March 23, 1942.

CARLOS BRENES JARQUÍN.—Nicaraguan physician and statesman. Distinguished member of the Liberal Party. Was twice elected deputy to the National Congress; served as mayor of Masaya, his native city; and in 1936 was President of the Republic for seven months. From April to December 1937 was Minister of Nicaragua to the United States and acted during that time as his country's repre-

sentative on the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. Died at Managua on January 2, 1942.

MANUEL ECHEVERRÍA Y VIDAURRE.—Guatemalan jurist and diplomat. Began his public career as judge in Guatemala City and later was named justice of the Central American Court at San José, Costa Rica. Served as representative of his country at the Versailles Peace Conference and later carried out several special missions before the Government of the United States. Represented his country in various consular and diplomatic posts in Costa Rica, El Salvador, Spain, the United States, and Mexico, where since 1937 he had served as Minister. Died at the age of 65 years in Mexico City on February 26, 1942.

JOSÉ MARÍA EGUREN.—Peruvian poet. Educated at the College of the Immaculate Conception and the José Granda Scientific Institute in Peru. He occupied a high place in Peruvian letters and was one of the initiators of the symbolist movement in his country. Contributed to many publications in various countries of the continent, translated many English, French, German, and Danish poetical works into Spanish, and was the author of such original works as *Simbólicas* and *La Canción de las Figuras*. Died at the age of 60 years in Lima on April 19, 1942.

VALENTÍN GAMA.—Mexican topographical engineer. Graduated from the National School of Engineers. Served six years on the United States-Mexican International Boundary Commission; worked with the Geodetical Commission and the National Observatory of Mexico; helped to organize the geographical service of the War Department. Professor in the National School of Engineers since 1904 and in later years its Director; established the School of Sciences in the National University; served as Rector of the

University and as member of the Council of Public Instruction. Had been identified with the Revolutionary movement in Mexico since before 1910 and worked with interest and zeal toward solving many of his country's social and agrarian problems. Died at the age of 74 years at Mexico City on January 3, 1942.

ARNO KONDER.—Brazilian diplomat. Began his public career in 1908 in the Propaganda Office in connection with Brazil's foreign trade expansion program. Served in the Brazilian Office of Information in Paris in 1913 and as government attorney in the National Campaign for Workmen's Insurance in 1919. From 1926 to 1931 was commercial attaché in New York and head of the National Commerce Department of the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce. In 1932 he was made consul and served thereafter in Montreal and Washington. In 1936 promoted to Consul General and later held that post in Berlin. In 1938 named chief of the Economic Division of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Represented his country at the Ibero-American Exposition at Seville, 1927; was technical adviser to the Brazilian delegation to the Seventh International Conference of American States, Montevideo, 1933; technical expert at the Brazilian Embassy in Washington during the United States-Brazilian commercial negotiations, 1934-35. In February 1940 was named Minister-Counselor of the Embassy in Washington. Died in Washington at the age of 59 years on February 16, 1942.

PERCY ALVIN MARTIN.—Historian and university professor. Graduated from Stanford University in 1902; obtained A. M. and Ph. D. degrees at Harvard in 1907 and 1912. Attended University of Paris, 1903-04, and Universities of Berlin and Leipzig, 1907-08. Began his teaching career in 1904 and during the years

gave courses at many universities, including Stanford, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, George Washington, the Universities of Washington, California, Hawaii, and the National University of Mexico, specializing in diplomatic and Latin American history. Secretary of Brazilian Committee, Pan American Financial Conference, Washington, 1920; member of editorial staff of *Hispanic-American Historical Review* since 1920. Research associate, Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1926. Member of many American and Latin-American cultural and historical societies and author of several books on Latin American subjects. Co-editor of *Who's Who in Latin America*. Died at the age of 62 years at Laguna Beach, California, on March 8, 1942.

MIGUEL ÁNGEL OSORIO (Barba Jacob).—Colombian poet. Born in Santa Rosa de Osos, Department of Antioquia. He was entirely a self-taught man, of restless and tempestuous spirit, a journalist and writer of wide repute, and generally recognized as one of the greatest contemporary poets in the Spanish language. Author of such books of verse as *El Llor de los Niños*, *Filosofía del Hijo*, *Tristeza del Camino*, *Rosas Negras*, and *Canciones y Elegías*. In addition to the pseudonym Barba Jacob, he frequently used others such as Maín Ximénez, and Ricardo Arenales. The greater part of his life was spent in Mexico. Died at the age of 59 years in Mexico City on January 14, 1942.

EPITÁCIO PESSOA.—Brazilian jurist and ex-President. Received degrees of bachelor and doctor of law in 1886 and 1891, respectively, at the School of Law, Recife. His long and brilliant legal and public career included the following activities: Deputy to the National Congress from the State of Paraíba, 1890–93; member of the Republican Constituent Assembly, 1890; professor, School of Law, Recife, 1891–1902; Minister of Justice under President Campos Salles, 1898–1901; Supreme Court justice, 1902–12; senator from Paraíba, 1912–19; chief of Brazilian delegation to the Versailles Peace Conference, 1918–19; President of Brazil, 1919–22; justice of the Permanent Court of International Justice, The Hague, 1924–30. He was also Brazilian delegate to the meetings of the International Commission of American Jurists for the codification of international law in 1912 and 1927, and in 1932 was named by President Hoover to represent the United States on the commission to draft a treaty of arbitration between that country and Great Britain. He was a member of many national and international learned, legal, and philanthropic societies and was the recipient of numerous foreign decorations and honors. He was the author of many legal works and his *Code of International Public Law* (1911) enjoyed world-wide fame. Died at the age of 77 years in Rio de Janeiro on February 13, 1942.

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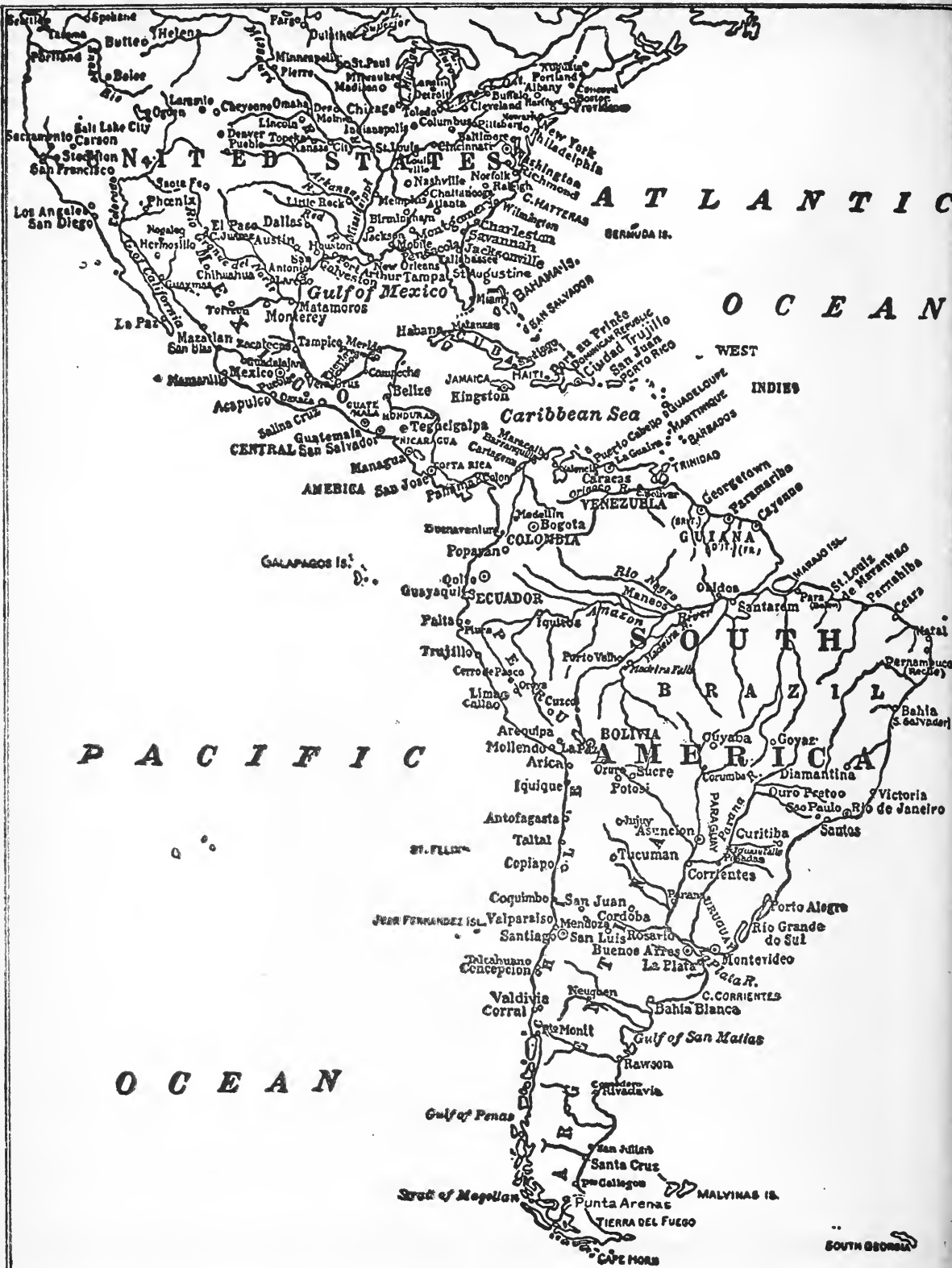
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1942

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



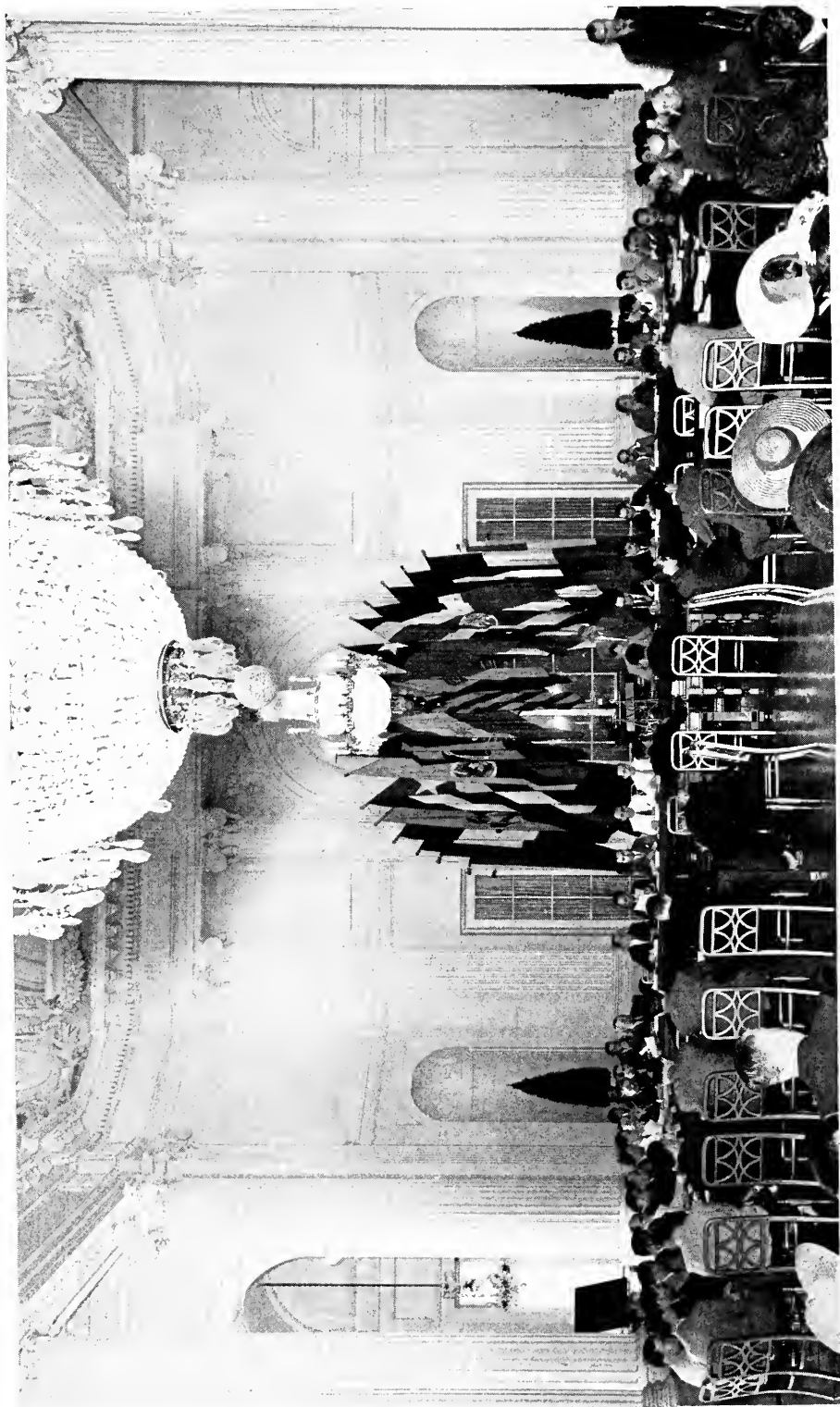
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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: GALLERY OF HEROES, PAN AMERICAN UNION





CLOSING SESSION OF THE INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE ON SYSTEMS OF ECONOMIC AND FINANCIAL CONTROL

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control

MANUEL C. GALLAGHER

Delegate of Peru

AT the outbreak of hostilities in Europe there arose for the countries of the American Continent a serious economic problem related to the sale of their products.

Almost all the countries of the American Continent are producers of raw materials, many of which they sold in European markets. The United States did not perform the functions of a central clearing house. Its large production was consumed to a great extent at home and many of the raw materials which it used were received from distant markets.

As the hostilities in Europe spread, the markets for the raw materials which the countries of Latin America produced were closed, and transportation difficulties almost completely nullified every possibility of trade.

Because this world conflict is a conflict of

ideas and systems, the Western Hemisphere could not remain isolated. Living from its own labor, for the furtherance of its own aims, in an atmosphere of peace and hospitality, the New World wished to remain outside the conflict. But the ideological struggle and the superiority claimed by some belligerent nations have brought the war to the shores of America. The United States was attacked by surprise in one of its most distant possessions in the Pacific, and because of the surprise, in a short time many lands which were accustomed to supply raw materials to American industry were in the power of its enemies.

All the American Republics were thus, against their wishes, directly concerned in the world conflict.

At the same time that the sale of their raw materials and the purchase of manu-

factured products was made impossible, each American country, because of the hospitality extended to foreigners, had to face an internal problem represented by the spread of ideas and systems contrary to those which served as a basis for their national structure.

It was a matter of fundamental prudence to adopt in the economic sphere the measures which were indispensable for the assurance of continental defense. At the Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs held at Rio de Janeiro in 1942 recommendations of a general character for the establishment of bases of that defense were approved, and at the suggestion of Peru it was agreed that an inter-American conference should subsequently be held to determine the systems of economic and financial control which should be adopted.

In accordance with the agreement made at Rio de Janeiro, delegates of the 21 American Republics inaugurated at Washington on June 30, 1942, the Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control, which was in session until July 10.

In such a short space of time it might have appeared impossible to adopt unanimously detailed agreements of an economic and financial character which each country would apply to assure the defense of the Continent. Some nations were in a state of war, others had broken their diplomatic and commercial relations with the countries signatory to the Tripartite Pact, and some still maintained those relations. Thus the status of the countries which were represented at the Conference was not identical, and this difference was further revealed in the credentials of the delegates, since while some of the delegates were Ministers of Finance, others represented Central Banks and similar institutions. But as the interest of America was one and the same

and as the problem was substantially identical for all the countries of the Western Hemisphere, it was easy to reach a rapid and definite agreement.

As a contrast to the panorama presented by Europe, where the fruit of millenary civilizations is being destroyed, the twenty-one American Republics are showing the world that in America neither fundamental differences nor ardent desires for superiority exist, and that all these young nations make up one front in order to defend their economic and financial independence and maintain those principles of democracy which they proclaimed when they became nations.

The Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control worked in an atmosphere of loyalty and cooperation. Not even the most trifling or insignificant incident sprang up among the delegations. All the recommendations were adopted unanimously. The different footing on which the delegates met, and to which reference has already been made, caused no diversity of judgment in approving recommendations referring to common defense, because that defense arises from a uniform belief in the independence of the Western Hemisphere in order that every citizen may live independently and be fully aware of his honor.

The purpose motivating the recommendations approved at the Conference was to prevent the nations and real and juridical persons threatening the security of the Western Hemisphere from carrying on any operations in the lands of America by exercising effective control over commercial and financial transactions, prohibiting such transactions entirely when necessary.

In the present war each belligerent country is using every available resource, and the economic factor naturally plays a preponderant role. America understands that economic and financial operations, as

a country develops, can produce the germ of domination and supply undesirable propaganda. America is resolved to prevent in time the propagation of evil, and she is hastening to prescribe measures to protect her from irreparable damage.

This collaboration of the American Republics, which arises because of the World War, should serve as an example for post-war relations. Western Hemisphere industry should not seek elsewhere raw materials that are produced on this Continent, merely to secure lower prices. An economic adjustment should be made to produce a necessary and perpetual interchange that would bind the economic systems of the American Republics with indestructible ties. The ideal pursued by those nations should in the future be accompanied by a general interest of economic character, joining them more closely. It is not a question of autarchy, but of avoiding looking elsewhere for what can be secured at home.

The exemplary unity the American Republics showed at the Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control is not only a promise but a firm pledge

of their indestructible union. America must not live isolated from the world, but she should procure the greatest possible interchange among her own countries so as not to order from foreign parts what the fruitful soil of America is in a position to supply. There will always remain a wide field for commercial intercourse with the rest of the world, but if America knows how to make use of her riches she will be in a better condition than she is today to cope with new troubles if war should come again.

It is to be hoped that after this terrible struggle humanity will adopt rules for mutual understanding, outlawing aspirations for predominance by isolated groups; but America should prepare herself insofar as possible for any emergency, because she is not mistress of the future nor can she dictate the course to be followed by all countries and all races.

Meanwhile all the American Republics can point with pride to that fraternal spirit which inspires them and which they proved at the recent Conference. It can truthfully be said that the Pan American Union has attained maturity.

APPENDIX

I

FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL TRANSACTIONS WITH AGGRESSOR NATIONS AND NATIONS DOMINATED BY THEM

The Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control

RECOMMENDS:

That the Governments of the American Republics, pursuant to Resolution V of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, held at Rio de Janeiro, adopt and put into effect as soon as possible, effective measures to achieve the following purposes:

- (a) To block effectively the use, transmission or transfer of funds, securities and property within the American Republics now held

by nations which have committed acts of aggression against the American Continent, or subsequently acquired for their account, as well as the funds, securities, and property now held by a real or juridical person within such aggressor nations or in the territories dominated by them, or subsequently acquired for the account of such persons.

- (b) To prevent any real or juridical person within the jurisdiction of an American Republic from engaging in any financial or commercial transaction which involves the exportation of any property of any nature whatsoever, the remittance of any funds, or orders or instructions to persons under the jurisdiction of aggressor nations or those dominated by them, whether such exporta-

tion or remittance be made, or such orders or instructions be given, directly or indirectly.

There shall be excepted remittances (i) for living expenses of citizens of such American Republic residing within the aggressor nations or in the territories dominated by them and (ii) for the expenses of representing the governmental interests of such American Republics in the aggressor nations or in the territories dominated by them, including the care and safeguarding of the property of the Governments of such American Republics. The said payments can only be made directly by the Government of the respective American Republic, or through the Government representing its interests in such aggressor nations, or in the territories dominated by them.

- (c) To prevent any real or juridical person within the jurisdiction of an American Republic from engaging in any financial or commercial transaction which involves the importation of any property of any nature whatsoever or the receipt of any funds, or the acting upon any order or instruction from any person within the jurisdiction of the aggressor nations or nations dominated by them, whether such importation, receipt of funds, or compliance with such order or instruction be made directly or indirectly. There shall be excepted the remittances which each Government in its discretion may authorize (i) for living expenses of citizens of such aggressor nations or nations dominated by them, residing within the American Republics, and (ii) for expenses of representing the governmental interests of the aggressor nations or nations dominated by them, in the American Republics, including the care and safeguarding of the property of the governments of said aggressor nations or the nations dominated by them.

Except in cases of effective reciprocity, the exceptional payments referred to in the preceding paragraph shall in no case be made out of blocked funds or other assets which the aggressor nations or the nations dominated by them may have in the American Republics, but shall only be made out of unblocked funds of foreign ownership originating in territory outside the American Republics. Remittances for said payments shall be received only directly by the Gov-

ernment of the respective American Republic, or through the intermediary of the Government which represents in such American Republic the interests of said aggressor nations or of nations dominated by them.

II

FINANCIAL AND COMMERCIAL TRANSACTIONS WITH COUNTRIES OUTSIDE THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE

The Inter-American Conference on Systems of Financial and Economic Control

RECOMMENDS:

That the Governments of the American Republics, in addition to cutting off all financial and commercial transactions with the aggressor nations and the nations dominated by them, adopt as soon as possible, endeavoring not to cause unnecessary damage to neutral nations, appropriate measures with respect to their financial and commercial relationships with all of the other nations outside the Western Hemisphere, in order to:

- (a) Supervise adequately the funds and property within their respective jurisdictions now held or hereafter acquired by or for such other nations outside the Western Hemisphere or real or juridical persons within such nations, except those nations which have cut off commercial and financial transactions with the aggressor nations.
- (b) Prevent any real or juridical person within the jurisdiction of such American Republic from engaging in any commercial or financial transaction which involves the exportation or importation of any property of any nature whatsoever to or from nations outside the Western Hemisphere, or the remittance of funds to or from any person in such other nations outside the Western Hemisphere, when such exportation, importation or remittance is of benefit to the aggressor nations or to nations dominated by them.
- (c) Prevent all transactions between the American Republics and nations outside the Western Hemisphere involving any real or juridical person within any nation outside the Western Hemisphere whose activities are deemed by the respective American Republic concerned to be inimical to the security of the Western Hemisphere.

III

TRANSACTIONS AMONG THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS

The Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control

RECOMMENDS:

That, to prevent financial and commercial transactions which are of benefit to any of the nations which have committed acts of aggression against the American Continent, and transactions undertaken by any real or juridical person within the American Republics whose activities are inimical to the security of the Western Hemisphere, the Governments of the American Republics adopt, as soon as possible, measures to:

- (a) Establish between the American Republics an interchange of information with respect to commercial and financial transactions undertaken with real or juridical persons within other American Republics so that each nation, within its jurisdiction and in the exercise of its own authority, may prevent any transaction which would benefit the aggressor nations, the nations dominated by them, or persons whose activities are inimical to the security of the American Continent.
- (b) Prevent any transaction, subject to the jurisdiction of an American Republic, undertaken by real or juridical persons within nations outside the Western Hemisphere which have not cut off commercial and financial transactions with the aggressor nations, involving the monetary unit of another American Republic; except a transaction which, together with the report necessary to establish its nature, is undertaken through a bank of the American Republic whose monetary unit is involved in the transaction.
- (c) Prevent any transaction, subject to the jurisdiction of an American Republic, involving real or juridical persons within nations outside the Western Hemisphere which have not cut off commercial and financial relations with the aggressor nations, and real or juridical persons within another American Republic, unless such transactions are performed with the approval of the latter Republic.

IV

CONTROL OF MOVEMENT AND TRANSFER OF SECURITIES

The Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control

RECOMMENDS:

That the Governments of the American Republics, in order to prevent transactions in securities for the benefit of the aggressor nations, adopt appropriate measures to:

- (a) Establish a precautionary blocking of securities which directly or indirectly are imported into the American Republics from countries outside the Western Hemisphere, as well as their coupons, interests, and dividends, until it is determined that the aggressor nations, or the nations dominated by them, or persons within such nations, have not or have not had any interest in them since the beginning of the present emergency.
- Non-bearer securities imported into American nations from countries outside the Western Hemisphere after the beginning of the present emergency, likewise may be subjected to precautionary blocking.
- (b) To supervise transactions of any nature whatsoever by persons within an American Republic in securities, or interests therein, which are located outside the Western Hemisphere, so as to prevent transactions in which persons in aggressor nations or nations dominated by them have an interest or have had an interest since the beginning of the present emergency; or those from which they may derive some benefit direct or indirect.
- (c) Require registration, or adopt any other appropriate measures, in order to determine if any person within the aggressor nations or the nations dominated by them, has any interest in securities issued or payable in any of the American Republics.

V

STANDARDS FOR THE APPLICATION OF FINANCIAL AND ECONOMIC CONTROLS WITHIN THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS

The Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control

RECOMMENDS:

1. That the application of the economic and financial controls of the Governments of the American Republics, during the present emergency, should have as one of its objectives the control of the property and transactions of all persons, real or juridical, residing or situated within their respective jurisdictions, regardless of nationality, who by their conduct are known to be, or to have been,

engaging in activities inimical to the security of the Western Hemisphere.

2. That each of the Governments of the American Republics, through the application of its economic and financial controls, eliminate from the economic life of the respective country all undesirable influence and activity of those persons, real or juridical, residing or situated within the American Republics, who are known to be, or to have been, engaging in activities inimical to the security of the Western Hemisphere.

VI

STANDARDS OF EFFECTIVE BLOCKING

The Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control

RECOMMENDS:

1. That the Governments of the American Republics that have not already done so adopt, in accordance with their constitutional principles, measures to carry out the effective blocking of assets belonging to real or juridical persons, whatever may be their nationality, when these persons are deemed by the respective Government to act in a manner contrary to the security or the national economies of the American Republics; these measures shall not exclude other measures which may be taken by the Governments with regard to commercial, industrial, agricultural, financial or other enterprises, which measures are recommended elsewhere.

2. That blocking shall include all cash, securities, income or other assets of any other kind, including the proceeds of the sale or liquidation of assets or firms.

3. That blocked assets may not be disposed of without the authorization of the respective Government or agencies. Any transaction contrary to these provisions shall be null and void.

4. That all blocked cash or securities shall be deposited in the central bank or in approved banks, or in appropriate organizations, subject to provisions adopted by the respective Government.

5. That the Governments shall not permit disposal of blocked assets if such action benefits, directly or indirectly, the interests of the aggressor nations or the nations dominated by them, whether such disposal takes place in the country in which the transaction originates or in any other country affected by the operation; or if such action is contrary to the fundamental purpose expressed in the first paragraph of this recommendation.

6. That the Governments may authorize the

disposal of blocked funds when the applicant proves that such funds are essential to his subsistence and that of his family; but such authorization shall not exceed the maximum periodical amount fixed by the respective Government.

VII

CONTROL OF BUSINESS ENTERPRISES

The Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control

RECOMMENDS:

1. That, in accordance with the constitutional procedure of each country, all necessary measures be adopted as soon as possible, in order to eliminate from the commercial, agricultural, industrial and financial life of the American Republics, all influence of governments, nations, and persons within such nations who, through natural or juridical persons or by any other means are, in the opinion of the respective Government, acting against the political and economic independence or security of such Republics, and that to this end the following measures be adopted:

- (a) The business, properties and rights of any real or juridical person included within the terms of the foregoing paragraph, whatever their nationality, shall be the object of forced transfer or total liquidation; and, if this should not be desirable in the opinion of the Government of each country, they shall be the object of blocking, occupation or intervention in order to give effect to the purposes of this recommendation.
- (b) The officers and employees of any real or juridical persons, whose actions may be contrary to the purposes set forth in paragraph 1 of this recommendation, shall be removed from their positions and the severance payments to which they may be entitled shall be blocked; and the salaries and other remuneration of those who temporarily continue in service shall be limited and supervised, in order to comply with the aforementioned purposes.
- (c) The contracts of such real or juridical persons which may be directly or indirectly contrary to the purposes set forth in the first paragraph of this recommendation, shall be rescinded; and in applying the measures set forth in paragraph (a), the contracts entered into by them and the concessions granted to them for the exploitation of natural resources and public services, such as land, mines, water rights, transportation and

other similar activities, may also be considered rescinded and without effect.

(d) The following shall be effectively blocked in accordance with the regulations pertaining to blocking: the proceeds of the sale of transferred properties and rights; the profits accruing from intervened or supervised businesses; and the funds derived from total liquidations.

(e) The alienation, in any form, of the said properties and rights in accordance with paragraph (a), can only be made to nationals of the respective country or to juridical persons formed by them. In the establishment of the conditions of these acquisitions or in the selection of the buyers, the Government of the country in which the transaction takes place shall not permit any direct or indirect participation by any real or juridical person whose activities are deemed contrary to the principles set forth in the first paragraph of this recommendation.

2. Each country shall designate one or more organizations to be in charge of the administration of the aforementioned measures.

3. The American Republics shall maintain an

exchange of information on the measures adopted pursuant to this recommendation.

VIII

RECIPROCAL COOPERATION AMONG THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS

The Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control

RECOMMENDS:

That the Governments of the American Republics lend each other the greatest measure of cooperation in the formulation and application of systems and procedures which will facilitate placing in effect, within their jurisdictions and in the exercise of their authority, Recommendations V and VI adopted by the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, the consequent recommendations adopted by this Conference, and measures which have been or may be taken by the Governments of the American Republics.

That in consequence the aforesaid Governments endeavor to establish an interchange of information and consultation which will afford knowledge of the experience acquired by each one of them.





Courtesy of Toledo Museum of Art

"LANDSCAPE IN SPRING" BY CARLOS PEDRAZA

Chilean Art Tours the United States

MOLLY OHL GODWIN

Dean, Toledo Museum of Art School of Design

THE art of Chile, when set beside the work of contemporary Americans and Europeans, preserves a distinct flavor of its own. It is rooted in the past and reaches consciously to the future. Its roots are multiple and draw upon many countries and periods of time. Its foliage springs luxuriant and fresh as the vegetation of that beautiful country. This art draws freshness from a land endowed by nature

with dramatic contrasts and thrives on the light and climate. The plastic range of nature incites artistic preference for the plastic possibilities of paint. Mountains, ponderous clouds, vegetation floriferous and colorful can whet an artist's appetite for the rich material of oil, the strength inherent in carved stone. Nature in Chile reminds us of the nuances as well as the force of light, for over the green central

valley that shelters Santiago lies a perpetual ground mist visible from the air as a billowy veil. This pearly vapor acts as a diffusing screen as translucent and effective as ground glass. Resplendent sun falling through shimmering atmosphere is brilliant to the camera's eye. Here we find the reason for the Chilean artist's many accents of white paint, for the piercing highlights on form beside shadows of exaggerated intensity. Just as the climate of France demands blue-violet in her painter's palette for the evocation of color native to that land, so the light in Chile dedicates her art to high diffused values.

Familiarity with Spanish painting discovers in Chile a heritage of Hispanic color harmonies, the use of blue-reds with yellow-reds, the juxtaposition of ochre and magenta so foreign to our Anglo-Saxon vision. Noticeable in the Chilean landscape, in local interior decoration and in the fine arts is the use of fluid greens peculiarly personal to that country.

The men and women of Chile delight in versatile brushwork; they are capable and inventive in the laying on of paint. Their current specialty is oil, with a secondary attraction to gouache. This latter medium is used by José Perotti with admirable flexibility and a range of texture from limpid clarity to velvet bloom. Linear rhythm arouses provocative life in his compositions. Pure water color is a medium less natural to these artists and one whose brilliant force they specially admire in the hands of artists of the United States.

The arts of the graver and burin are far subordinate in Chile, having been strangled at birth in colonial times by the Spanish ban on printing. This deficiency is about to be slowly corrected through the training of craftsmen in the book arts.

In line with the many international, functional art influences at work in Chilean housing, architecture, interior

decoration and city planning, is the group of admirable contemporary posters shown in the Toledo exhibition. Several combine the most appealing of sentiments with sophisticated economy of artistic means. Camilo Mori designed the poster to advertise the Chilean exhibition throughout its North American stay, and this was planned to serve also as the cover for the distinguished catalogue written by Chilean scholars and published in the United States.

Painters of nature are the Chileans of today. Their long, narrow country has a backbone of majestic mountains and above its capital city gleams a halo of snowcaps against blue cloud-filled skies. Twenty-six hundred miles of Pacific shore line have little attraction for the artists of that country; the lure is Andean and not Pacific. If there be nostalgic moods in Chilean music, they are the melancholy of mountain spaces, not the murmuring



Courtesy of Toledo Museum of Art

"THE LILACS" BY ROBERTO HUMERES



Courtesy of Toledo Museum of Art

"PORTRAIT OF SEÑORA SARA PANATT"
BY RAÚL VARGAS

of that vast ocean. Seen from the air, the rocky coast until well toward the south offers few harbors, and life centers in the valleys that thread the sparsely covered spurs of the main range. Another world lies in the lush Chilean lake region, seen in the romantic paintings by Agustín Abarca.

Pablo Burchard stands alone in his evaluation of Chilean light as it falls on the fabric of stone or stucco, or pulsates in the heat and color of a village street. Jorge Caballero gives a crisp view of towns nestled in the countryside. The district about the capital city glows in jewels of paint from the brush of Manuel Quevedo. Rich and fluent is the oil technique of Roberto Humeres, Carlos Ossandón, Luis Torterolo and Carlos Pedraza, although each uses the medium towards a different plastic end.

From the full landscape Chileans pluck their secondary subject, still-life, mostly of flowers. Like the landscapes, they are developed in structural force suspended in delicate atmosphere. Something not frequent in still-life, they are neither academic nor posed, but exist within space with natural abandon. Inés Puyo and María Tupper have outstanding examples in the current exhibition.

Some critics are prone to see only 19th century French impressionism in the art of many men today. I submit that the ancestors discernible in Chilean art include many men whose brushwork was vigorous and whose chief love was fat paint. Impressionism in the broad sense of telling shorthand in brushwork and broken color scintillates on the canvases of Tiepolo, Daumier, Velázquez, Goya, and Rubens, to name only a few. Manet and Renoir flow in art's blood-stream today but they motivate the present in company with earlier painters. and all together will feed the future.



Courtesy of Toledo Museum of Art

"MARTA" BY JOSÉ PEROTTI

After we had been rewarded with the range and assurance of Chilean painting, it was additional satisfaction to find sculpture of primary distinction. Monumental carvings were impossible to transport in wartime cargoes, and some by Lorenzo Domingues and Julio Vásquez had to be represented in Toledo by photographs. Pieces of portable size included heads in bronze and in stone and a few in a Chilean clay which fires into terracotta of delicate ruddy hue. Lily Garafulic and Raúl Vargas possess subtle tactile qualities superimposed on structural form. Samuel Román carries a woman's head into monumental force, while still preserving a mystic grace. Laura Rodig is another sculptor capable in surface manipulation and subtle volume.

We met many of the artists of Chile, her painters, sculptors and musicians. One received the impression of activity, instinctive absorption in art, and a refreshing intent to avoid the theoretical; imagination is still too explorative to have solidified into schools of thought. Museums and private purchasers are few and a country little developed in manufacture or salesmanship offers slight commercial distraction. It repays its artists by an atmosphere conducive to concentration on the fine arts. The coming into existence of a painting is more important than its subsequent fate. These men and women are art teachers, or business and professional people who are artists by avocation. In Santiago centers most of the art of the country. Much of it springs from the staff and advanced students of the School of Fine Arts and the School of Decorative Arts of the University of Chile. Objective courage fifteen years ago led to the artistic quality current in 1942. Dissatisfied with early results, its leaders had the initiative to close both art schools and use operating funds to send for European



Courtesy of Toledo Museum of Art

"HELENA" BY SAMUEL ROMÁN



Courtesy of Toledo Museum of Art

"HEAD" BY LAURA RODIG



Courtesy of Toledo Museum of Art

"STILL LIFE" BY LUIS TORTEROLO

study their most talented teachers and students. Once returned to their own country, the schools reopened with this staff of young men and women, cognizant of European trends yet determined to remain themselves in the hope of the gradual emergence of a purely national art. Most of them are in their thirties and forties today, a fact which has its bearing on the quality of their output and influence, and on their fluidity of thought and lack of pedantry. Nor must we forget the ten years' leadership of the Dean of the Faculty of Fine Arts of the University of Chile, Dr. Domingo Santa Cruz, also deeply concerned with music as one of Chile's leading composers.

In addition to his personal scholarship as art historian and teacher, Dr. Eugenio Pereira Salas sees that these opportunities reach young people of talent through a system of sustaining scholarships.

The exhibition of Chilean art arranged by the Toledo Museum of Art in cooperation with the United States Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs went from its opening in Toledo to museums in Columbus, Pasadena, San Francisco, Kansas City, Pittsburgh, Worcester, and the Metropolitan Museum of New York, among others. Shown in Toledo when the United States was newly at war, it brought forth public appreciation vociferous on the following points. People liked

these paintings because they were rewarding in themselves. They needed no explanation for initial appreciation, being neither exaggerated in any one mode of technique, nor holding any brief for the abstract. Another reason given for public enjoyment was the Chilean lack of negative analysis prevalent elsewhere in contemporary art. Here simply was concrete poetic realism, set down by capable hands. It was heartening to come upon painting

and sculpture devoid of propaganda, artistic, social or national. These comments came from a widespread public knowledgeable through forty years of contact with great permanent collections growing in Toledo and with travelling exhibitions of the best in contemporary European and American art. Chilean art to them is a permanent enthusiasm, something to be watched for its future development.

Sources of Information on Social and Labor Problems in Brazil

EUGENE D. OWEN

Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor

Part I

THE extensive and growing literature dealing with social and labor problems in Brazil indicates the attention being given in that Republic to the problems of the working people. It is interesting to note that the Government of Brazil prepared for use at the New York World's Fair an illustrated folder entitled *Brazil: Social Policy and Labor Protection* (Rio de Janeiro, Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio, 1939). It contains a brief statement of Brazilian social policy as embodied in the Constitution of 1937, a summary of legislation enacted to make this policy operative, a list of social insurance benefits, a statement of the source of revenue to support these benefits, a list of the social insurance institutions in operation and their assets in 1937, a discussion of Government activities to provide low-cost housing and minimum

wages, and the guaranty of equality before the law for all workers, within the requirement that two-thirds be nationals. A general article on Brazil entitled *South America: Brazil*, in *Fortune* (New York, June, 1939, pp. 42-52), written for popular reading, contains much interesting information in addition to commercial notes. It includes a brief comparison of wages and cost of living in various parts of Brazil, a section on working conditions and labor legislation, and a discussion of restrictions on aliens.

An excellent recent article dealing with the whole social and labor situation in Brazil is *Social Problems and Legislation in Brazil*, by R. Paula Lopes (*International Labor Review*, Montreal, International Labor Office, November, 1941, pp. 493-537). A brief statement of the origin and development of social and labor legislation

in Brazil is followed by an analysis of the social problems of today respecting population and its distribution and wage level. The summary of social and labor legislation includes that relating to occupational associations, collective labor agreements, labor courts, protection of women and minors, wage and hour legislation, social insurance (including dismissal compensation, workmen's compensation, and pension and sickness insurance), regulation of factors affecting employment, labor inspection, solution of nutrition problems, and cooperation.

Social and labor statistics for Brazil are found in *Statistical Abstract of Brazil, 1938*, which is in Portuguese and English (Rio de Janeiro Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística, 1940, lxiii, 314 pp. and charts). This comprehensive statistical yearbook of Brazil includes data, through 1937, on wholesale and retail prices of staple foods; salaries and wages in industry, commerce, agriculture, etc.; cost of living; living conditions of low-income wage-earners; Government-supervised retirement and pension funds; consumers' cooperatives; colonies supervised by the Federal Government; labor agreements; and legally recognized trade unions (1931-1938).

Brazilian periodicals dealing with social and labor problems are numerous and well edited. By far the most important is the *Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, (Rio de Janeiro), a monthly publication founded in 1934. It averages about 400 pages each issue. This official publication, one of the finest labor and social publications in any language, prints the text of legislative and other official action dealing with social problems in Brazil, signed articles by specialists in various fields of the social sciences, and some statistics relating to social and labor conditions. A few articles deal with other countries. The large number of special

articles quoted from it in this paper (more than one-fourth of all titles used) shows the wide range of its coverage. An important periodical that began publication in January, 1940, is the *Revista Brasileira de Estatística*, the official organ of the Conselho Nacional de Estatística and the Sociedade Brasileira de Estatística, published quarterly at Rio de Janeiro by the Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística. It averages about 200 pages to the issue. The news section covering Brazil and other countries, the bibliography, including some signed reviews and some extracts, largely but not exclusively on statistical matters, and numerous statistical series, including exchange rates of various foreign currencies on the Rio de Janeiro exchange, are of social and labor interest. The *Revista do Serviço Público*, a monthly publication founded in 1937 and issued by the Departamento Administrativo do Serviço Público, is another voluminous publication covering a wide variety of problems in the social and labor field. Its articles deal with social progress and with social and labor legislation. It includes reports on activities of labor courts and occupational associations, together with statistical information concerning Government offices. *Legislação do Trabalho*, established in São Paulo in 1937, describes itself as a national monthly journal of social legislation, theory, and jurisprudence, and averages about 60 pages to the issue. Another publication of about the same size is the *Revista do Trabalho*, a monthly journal established in Rio de Janeiro in 1933. Like *Legislação do Trabalho*, it prints the text of much social and labor legislation and some articles on current labor topics, but gives more space to court decisions relating to labor than does the former. *Iapetc*, the official organ of the Instituto de Aposentadoria e Pensões dos Empregados em Transportes e Cargas, has been

issued monthly in Rio de Janeiro since 1940. It is somewhat smaller than the two preceding publications, and is a variety magazine, but it contains much information relating to social insurance in Brazil. *Economia*, established in São Paulo in June 1939, is an important contribution in the field of social and economic literature of Brazil, averaging about 50 pages each issue. Its contributed articles cover a wide range of social and labor problems, and its news section contains many items of interest on Brazil and other countries. As with most of the other publications listed in this paper, the type of material included is shown clearly by articles summarized in other parts of this paper. *O Observador Econômico e Financeiro*, a monthly journal founded in 1936, and published in Rio de Janeiro, contains a wide variety of material, including statistics, relating to social and labor problems. The *Revista do Arquivo Municipal* (established in 1934), a monthly journal published by the State Government of São Paulo, is a voluminous review in which appear scholarly articles and other matter treating of social and labor problems and their solution. The above are some of the more important publications issued in Brazil in which appear regularly materials of great importance to the student of social and labor problems in Brazil. More or less complete files of all the above publications are available in Washington, D. C.

An index to the development of social thinking in a country is to be found in the general tenor of its legislation. This can best be seen in retrospect, as Dr. Waldemar Falcão, Brazilian Minister of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, pointed out in an address delivered on December 17, 1940. Excerpts from this speech appeared in *Brazil Today* (New York, Brazilian Information Bureau), February 1941, pp. 2-8, under the title *Labor: The Progress of*

Social Legislation. This discourse gives the history of social legislation in Brazil from 1930 to 1940, the effect of such legislation to date, statistics of the entire social insurance structure through 1939, and a list of the 35 legislative enactments referred to by the Minister in his address. All but the list of enactments was reprinted in the BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION for July 1941 (pp. 420-428).

Three excellent indexes of labor and social legislation in Brazil are especially worthy of note. *Elenco Geral da Legislação Social Brasileira de 1903 a 1940*, prepared by Pêrsio Furquim Rebouças and Júlio Horst Zadrozny under the direction of Dr. Cesarino Júnior, was published in *Legislação do Trabalho* (São Paulo) December, 1940 (pp. 465-499) and February 1941 (pp. 64-71). This is a general chronological index of social and labor legislation in Brazil enacted from 1903 through December 13, 1940. It is fully annotated, indexed, and classified by topic. *Legislation 1930-1938* (Rio de Janeiro, Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, 1938, 121 pp., all but title in Portuguese), gives an account of the historical development of the existing body of social and labor legislation in Brazil, in addition to a classified index of all legislation of the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce relating to labor, welfare, and social assistance, November 1930 through September 1938, with a comprehensive alphabetical index appended. *Dez Anos de Legislação Social* (Rio de Janeiro, Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio, 1940, 156 pp.) contains a classified index of all social and labor legislation enacted in Brazil, mainly from 1930 through October 7, 1940. The material is listed in numerical order by kind of legislative enactment, and topically under headings: labor, industry, commerce, social welfare, immigration and settlement, and statistics.

Two excellent collections of Brazilian labor legislation are worthy of note. *Legislação Brasileira do Trabalho*, compiled by Charles J. Dunlop (Rio de Janeiro, Empresa Almanak Laemmert, Ltda., 1939, 1,160 pp.) contains the text of labor legislation enacted in Brazil through March 14, 1939, and in force in March, 1939. It is arranged by topics, annotated, and indexed by subject-matter and by chronological and numerical order of legislative enactments. *Legislação Trabalhista*, compiled by Francisco de Andrade Souza Netto (São Paulo, Saraiva y Cia., 1939, 1,270 pp.) is a collection of all legislation, including circulars, forms, etc., in force in Brazil, enacted from March 7, 1931, through October 7, 1938. It is topically arranged, with some cross-references and a chronological index.

Perhaps the outstanding book on the application of social and labor legislation in Brazil is *Manual de Fiscalização das Leis do Trabalho*, by Francisco Alexandre (Rio de Janeiro, A. Coelho Branco Filho, 1940, 190, vii pp.). This is a handbook on the application of Brazilian social legislation on industrial accidents, nationalization of labor, the work of women and minors, and paid vacations. It includes special regulations applying to 16 separate industrial groups. It contains the annotated text of all or selected parts of such legislation, with a numerical index of the legislative enactments thus included.

In general, the administration of social and labor legislation in Brazil is carried on entirely through the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce. *A Ação Social e Econômica do Ministério do Trabalho*, by Paulo Poppe (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, November 1938, pp. 345-357) gives an account of the background and organization of the present Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, with a

brief discussion of each of the subordinate offices of the Ministry with respect to dates of establishment, duties, etc. The propaganda work carried on through its publications, library, and meetings of an educational character is discussed. *Algunos Aspectos de los Servicios del Trabajo y de la Legislación Social del Brasil*, by Alfio Vezzani Solar (*Revista del Trabajo*, Santiago de Chile, February 1940, pp. 7-10) is an account by an official of the Chilean labor courts. It describes the various departments of the Brazilian Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio, specifically the Curso de Administração Pública for the training-in-service of employees of the Ministry; the Inspectorias Regionais for the application of the social legislation throughout the Republic; the Serviço de Estatística for the collection and dissemination of social and labor statistics; the Departamento Nacional do Trabalho, which supervises the execution of social legislation in the Federal District and acts as the central organ for coordination of certain national and international aspects of labor matters; the Conselho Nacional do Trabalho, which is a consultative office for public officials in matters of labor and social welfare and the superior court of justice of labor; the Procuradoria do Trabalho attached to the Conselho Nacional do Trabalho for the legal advice of workers, and the Justiça do Trabalho for the administration of justice in cases relating to labor legislation. *O Ministério do Trabalho no Decênio do Governo do Sr. Getúlio Vargas*, by Dr. Waldemar Falcão (*Legislação do Trabalho*, São Paulo, December 1940, pp. 453-456) is a summary of a speech delivered by the Minister of Labor in the series commemorating the tenth anniversary of the administration of President Vargas, in which are briefly summarized the development of the Ministry, the organization of occupational associa-

tions, the protection of labor by means of the minimum wage, social insurance, private insurance, etc. There are some statistics to show development during the decennium.

The Brazilian civil service, covering the National Government, is one of the best developed systems in Latin America. *The Brazilian Civil Service*, by Fritz Morstein Marx and Bryce Wood (*Inter-American Quarterly*, Washington, D. C., October 1940, pp. 42-63) makes a general comparison of the civil service systems developed in Prussia, Great Britain, and the United States; discusses the Brazilian civil service system with respect to legal foundation, recruiting, classification, promotion, and rights and duties of civil servants, and evaluates the system as operative at present.

The universal problem of cost of living has received considerable attention in the social and economic literature of Brazil. Josué de Castro, in *Alimentação Racional* (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, April 1940, pp. 193-223) describes briefly the offices for the scientific study of nutrition of workers in various countries; gives an account of nutrition and cost of living studies made in Brazil, with some of their

findings; and states the problem of workers' nutrition in Brazil and Government organization to attempt its solution. He concludes with an account of a low-cost restaurant in operation for the benefit of workers. A good account of one cost of living and nutrition study of 12,106 families living in and near Rio de Janeiro, is *Inquerito sobre as Condições da Alimentação Popular no Distrito Federal*, by João de Barros Barreto, Josué de Castro, and Almir Castro (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, December 1938, pp. 263-284, and January 1939, pp. 298-324). It was based on questionnaires prepared with the assistance of trained workers from September 1936 to October 1937, and gives an account and analysis of the study, reproducing forms used. A general work, entitled *A Alimentação da Classe Obreira de S. Paulo*, by Oscar Egidio de Araujo (São Paulo, Departamento de Cultura, 1940, which was not examined by this writer, but written up from review) states the problem of the proper nutrition of the Brazilian working class, compares the basic principles of a good ration with the results of nutrition studies made in São Paulo, and suggests improvements in the situation.



GENERALISSIMO RAFAEL L. TRUJILLO MOLINA

He was elected President of the Dominican Republic for the term ending August 16, 1947, and assumed office May 18, 1942.

Rafael Leonidas Trujillo Molina

Newly elected President of the Dominican Republic

THE general elections for the 1942–1947 term held in the Dominican Republic May 16, 1942, were characterized by the fact that women cast their votes for the first time in the history of the Dominican Republic. Generalissimo Rafael Leonidas Trujillo, the only candidate, who had been influential in securing this reform, was again elected to fill the office of President of the Dominican Republic.

Generalissimo Trujillo was born in San Cristóbal October 24, 1891, son of Don José Trujillo Valdez and Doña Julia Molina de Trujillo Valdez. He received his primary and secondary education in the public schools of San Cristóbal and Santo Domingo. He later attended the Centro de Enseñanza Militar; he has also received the degree of doctor *honoris causa* from the University of Santo Domingo. The Generalissimo married Doña María de los Ángeles Martínez, and they have two children.

His military career began in 1918, when he received his commission as second lieutenant. He advanced steadily during the next decade until he became, in 1929, General of Division; in 1932 he was made Commander-in-Chief of the Army.

The Generalissimo served as President of the Republic for the two terms 1930–1934 and 1934–1938. His eight years in the Presidency saw many improvements in the Dominican Republic. The recognition of

the nation abroad, the building of innumerable hospitals, schools, roads, bridges, and libraries, and the rebuilding of the capital city, badly damaged by hurricane in 1930, were some of his undertakings.

In 1938 Generalissimo Trujillo refused the presidential nomination. However, he continued to play an important role and exercise great influence in Dominican governmental affairs, having been granted the Supreme Command of the Army and Navy.

Since 1932 the Generalissimo has been the leader of the Dominican Party. On January 15, 1942, that party unanimously nominated him as candidate for the presidency for the 1942–1947 term and expressed the belief that, in the face of present world conditions, he was the only Dominican capable of directing the country's destinies. The Trujillo Party also supported the nomination; and both parties voiced the opinion that, because of the emergency, he should become President immediately following the elections. On May 18, President Manuel de Jesús Troncoso de la Concha resigned his post; and the newly elected President, who as Secretary of War and Navy was next in the presidential succession, took the oath of office, thereby taking over the duties he would ordinarily not have assumed until August 16.

Alfonso López

The New President of Colombia

PRESIDENTIAL elections for the 1942-46 term were held in Colombia May 3, 1942. Dr. Alfonso López, eminent statesman who held the office of President from 1934 to 1938, was elected by a vast majority.

Dr. López, who assumed office August 7 of this year, is a prominent national and international figure whose name is well known in America for the outstanding work he has carried on in each of the many fields in which he has been active—politics, diplomacy, international conferences, presidency—benefiting his own country and furthering inter-American relations. During his previous term he proved that he possessed great qualities as a statesman and leader and was able to bring about a noticeable change in Colombian social and economic life.

Dr. Lopez' first presidency marked a step forward for Colombia, placing her in a position of greater prosperity and of moral and material progress through tax and agrarian reform, the impulse given to agriculture, industry, and mining, the development of institutions for social welfare and the recognition of workers' rights, the effectiveness of free suffrage, the policy of peace with all nations and confraternity with the sister republics, and the guarantee of national progress in all fields.

The distinguished leader who will once again direct the destinies of the Colombian Republic was born in Honda, January 31, 1886. His parents were Dcn Pedro A.



López and Doña Rosario Pumarejo de López.

After completing his secondary education in his native land, Dr. López continued his studies in England and the United States, specializing in political economy and finance. While he was still very young he entered the New York branch of his father's business, but later returned to Bogotá to devote himself to family business and interests.

In 1910 he was elected Liberal deputy to the Assembly from the Department of Tolima. After that he spent several years

engaged in newspaper work and banking and commercial affairs, but in 1929 he again returned to politics in order to advocate the nomination of a liberal candidate for President of the Republic. His efforts were rewarded by the nomination and subsequent election to that office of the eminent statesman Dr. Enrique Olaya Herrera, the first Liberal president in almost 50 years.

Next Dr. López went to London, where he brilliantly filled the post of representative from his country to Great Britain and served as delegate to the Economic Conference of 1933. Having returned to Bogotá shortly thereafter, when the Leticia question was still pending, he remembered that in the British capital he had made the acquaintance of General Óscar Benavides. The latter had just become President of Peru, and he agreed to receive a visit from Dr. López, who, acting entirely as a private individual, discussed the question with him. A few days later a preliminary agreement, which put an end to hostilities, was signed; and the following year the Rio Protocol definitely settled the controversy. There is no doubt but that Dr. López' initiative greatly influenced and contributed to the happy conclusion of the matter.

At the end of that same year Dr. López was chairman of the Colombian delegation to the Seventh Pan American Conference in Montevideo, where he was recognized as an outstanding figure.

In February of the following year he was elected President of Colombia for the first time.

Dr. López' most recent triumph has been widely acclaimed not only in Colombia but in the other American countries. An editorial in a Peruvian newspaper heralded the event as one of great significance in the future of all the American nations, describing the newly elected

President as "a man of firm principles and deep convictions, sincerely eager that the mandates of history shall be fulfilled through democratic institutions."

Shortly before President López took office, he visited the United States at the invitation of President Roosevelt, who entertained him at the White House. The President-elect also went to several other cities, where he had an opportunity to observe factories and other plants engaged in the war effort of the United States.

While in Washington Señor López was the guest of honor at a luncheon given by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. In welcoming the distinguished guest, the Honorable Cordell Hull, Chairman of the Board and Secretary of State of the United States, said:

It is with the greatest pleasure that I extend to you, in the name of my colleagues of the Governing Board, a most cordial and hearty welcome to the Pan American Union.

The Republic of Colombia has during recent years made a notable contribution to the solidarity of the Western Hemisphere. It has given vigorous leadership at inter-American conferences for the strengthening of the inter-American cooperative system. It has taken effective measures to crush subversive activities designed against the integrity of Colombia and to implement the undertakings reached at inter-American conferences for the maintenance of the security of the American Republics.

In the formulation and development of Colombian policy you, Mr. President, have already made significant contribution. You were instrumental in bringing to a solution a dispute that threatened the peace in South America. You demonstrated by your own actions at the Montevideo Conference as well as by the views expressed by the delegates whom you sent to the Lima Conference your staunch advocacy of a policy of inter-American cooperation in which all contribute and all share. We are happy that during the next four years you will once again be directing the affairs of Colombia, because of our knowledge that the policy of collaboration, initiated by you in your first presidency and made positive and affirmative by your successor, will continue to be the cornerstone of Colombia's foreign policy.

Personally, I recall with great pleasure my close association with you in the work of the Seventh International Conference of American States at Montevideo in 1933. The important part which you played there contributed toward making that Conference a landmark in the history of inter-American relations.

We welcome you, therefore, Mr. President, as one of the great workers in the cause of continental solidarity. We sincerely hope that you will be given the health and strength to carry forward the great work with which your name is so closely associated.

The President-elect of Colombia replied:

MR. SECRETARY OF STATE, GENTLEMEN:

Eight years have elapsed since I had the honor to receive for the first time the welcome of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. The declarations formulated by the Secretary of State at the Montevideo Conference had only recently been enunciated; declarations which marked not only a new direction in American relations, but established the bases for the development of the policy of continental solidarity. This policy—the policy of the Good Neighbor—later received an abrupt impulse in the declaration of war in Europe, which stimulated the countries of America to undertake, by common agreement, the study and solution of the problems arising out of the world conflict and to seek solutions for those that will arise in the subsequent period of peace.

It was my good fortune to be able to collaborate with Mr. Hull in the first phases of this policy and, later, in my capacity as President of Colombia, in the negotiations that culminated in the Commercial Treaty between the two countries, which constituted one of the happiest expressions of liberal treatment in customs matters of which you, Mr. Secretary, have been the distinguished exponent in the United States. I also had the privilege of contributing to the work of the Conference for the Maintenance of Peace, held at Buenos Aires on the initiative of President Roosevelt, and at which the delegates of the Colombian Government presented a project for a League of American Nations which contemplated some of the bases of joint continental action subsequently accepted first at the conferences of Lima and Panama, and later at Habana and Rio de Janeiro.

Day by day the bonds uniting the nations of the Americas multiply and strengthen, all of which leads us to believe they will soon have a significance and an importance which could not have been foreseen when the war began in Europe. This is, in my judgment, the most hopeful aspect of the situation through which we are passing, and it justifies the optimism with which we await the advent of peace.

The world conflict is creating for us a clear conception of our present needs and future aspirations. Out of the difficulties through which we are now passing are slowly emerging the bases of a continental organization. When Europe begins to repair the destruction wrought by Axis armies, testing the new forms of political and economic organization which must replace those in effect prior to 1939, the wisdom of the New World will make itself evident through the influence of the democratic institutions which it adopted and which it has been perfecting since it achieved independence. On the other side of the Atlantic there will begin the task of reconstruction, which will perforce continue for many years because of the adverse circumstances created by the predominance of force. On this side, the task will be one of development with all the energy which Americans, both North and South, have used to assure to themselves the enjoyment of the advantages of Christian civilization. The fact that the strongest of the nations comprising the Pan American Union is inspired by sentiments of generosity, understanding, and a real feeling of continental solidarity, such as have characterized the mobilization of its energies to achieve its avowed aims in this war, is a guarantee on which we can rely that the sacrifices and tribulations of the present will be amply compensated.

As for myself, I feel a singular satisfaction in being associated once again in such fruitful activity, and in knowing that I can add my efforts to those of the ones who are carrying the responsibility of orienting and making effective, in war as well as in peace, the historic mission of the countries of this Continent, thus contributing my share to the cause of Pan American democracy.

I need hardly say, in conclusion, that my second administration, like my first, will be inspired by best wishes for the prosperity of the sister republics so ably represented here by you, Mr. Secretary of State, and by the Chiefs of the diplomatic missions accredited to Washington.

Relations between the United States and Guatemala during the Epoch of Justo Rufino Barrios

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RELATIONS between the United States and Guatemala were intimate during the fourteen years following the seizure of the Guatemalan government by Miguel García Granados and Justo Rufino Barrios in 1871. These two leaders owed the success of their thrust for power in considerable measure to Remington and Winchester rifles imported from the United States and therefore had good reason from the outset to appreciate the technological achievements of their Anglo-Saxon neighbor. Barrios promptly began to admire the skill, energy, and industry of the United States. His attitude toward the North Americas, as he called them, soon became one of cordial esteem. He was eager for their collaboration in the modernization of Guatemala. He wished also to obtain their aid in the settlement of a boundary dispute with Mexico and for his cherished plan to weld the five republics of Central America into a single nation.

Barrios was not a man who expected favors for nothing. He assumed that reciprocity would be required. He expected to win the support of the United States by giving assistance in the acquisition of naval bases and a canal route and by offering North Americans profitable opportunities for investing their money and talents in Guatemala.

It is unnecessary to dwell upon the

strategic aspect of these relationships. Barrios offered to cede Ocos Bay on the Pacific coast of Guatemala to the United States for a naval base. He also revealed a disposition to lend his aid in effecting the acquisition by the United States of the Bay Islands from Honduras and a canal concession from Nicaragua. That part of the story is fairly well known. The primary purpose of this article is to deal with a neglected phase of the subject and to present a summary of the important economic relations of the two countries during the Barrios period.

The inventions of technology began to flow from the United States into some parts of Latin America before the middle of the nineteenth century. By the 1870's and 1880's the stream had expanded. It was flowing not merely into Mexico but had reached Guatemala and the countries beyond. No large sums of North American capital were involved, for a surplus had not yet accumulated. The investment was mainly one of skill in technology and business management.

When García Granados and Barrios took charge of the Guatemalan government early in 1871, Guatemala had no railways, no steamboats on its lakes and rivers, no plumbing installations, little agricultural machinery, no barbed wire fences, no telegraphs, and of course no



THE JUSTO RUFINO BARRIOS STATUE, GUATEMALA CITY

This monument was erected by the people of Guatemala in recognition of Barrios' tireless efforts toward his country's improvement and development from 1871 until his death in 1885.

telephones or electric lights, because electric lights and telephones had not been invented. When Barrios was killed on the field of battle in April 1885, all these technological devices had been introduced through his efforts and those of his Guatemalan colleagues with the help of foreigners, especially North Americans.

Minor activities and contributions of citizens of the United States may be dismissed with a few sentences. A physician from the United States had charge of the army hospital in Guatemala City. A police expert from New York assisted in the training and reorganization of the Guatemalan police force. Captain V. S. Storm, aided by a special tariff concession, labored energetically to introduce barbed wire fence. He also imported machinery for the coffee, rice, and sugar cane indus-

tries as well as other modern farming implements. Captain Robert Cleves established in Guatemala a model diversified farm, importing from the United States such recent inventions as gang-plows, planters, cultivators, reapers, mowers, and threshers and such animals as Jersey cows, Merino sheep, and Berkshire hogs. The animals were brought from California, where Rollin P. Saxe was busily engaged in persuading Guatemalan visitors to introduce into their country the best breeds of horses, cattle, sheep, hogs, and fowls. W. J. Forsyth was granted a subsidy by Barrios for assisting in the importation and cultivation of cinchona trees, the source of quinine.¹ Dr. John Protherve

¹ This project has been revived in recent years, and there are now promising experimental plantations in Guatemala. They are of especial interest now that East Indian sources of quinine are shut off.—EDITOR.

of California was given land for an ostrich farm and a reward of 250 pesos for each ostrich introduced. Engineers from the United States were employed in surveying the boundary between Guatemala and Mexico.

In the field of public utilities citizens of the United States made significant contributions. This was emphatically true in the case of railway construction.

The first line of telegraph was built in Guatemala in 1873. It connected Guatemala City with the Pacific port of San José, passing through a number of intervening towns on the way. By 1882 Guatemala had more than 1,200 miles of telegraph wire and over sixty offices. Although Stanley McNider, who is said to have been a Canadian, is entitled to more credit for the system than any other foreigner, a good deal of the mileage was constructed by experts from the United States in connection with the railways. By the early 1880's Guatemala had the benefit of a cable connection with the outside world through the port of Libertad, El Salvador. This connection was provided by the Central and South American Telegraph Company, a corporation located in the United States. By virtue of an agreement signed with Jacob A. Scrymser, the president of this company, on January 13, 1880, Barrios obtained a voice in the fixing of rates in return for the use of Guatemala's territorial waters.

Citizens of the United States played an important part in the modernization of Guatemala City. Californians installed a system of street lighting in 1879, using naphtha gas; but the system was unsatisfactory and their contract was revoked in 1881. Electric lights were installed in 1884-1885 by Guatemalans in collaboration with foreign experts. The leading spirit in this enterprise was a Polish

engineer named Piatkowski, who may have been a naturalized citizen of the United States. The telephone system was established in 1885 by a company composed of Guatemalans and Californians. Barrios had granted the concession to Roderico Toledo and other Guatemalans; the manager of the company was J. D. Tracy. The street railways were constructed by J. B. Bunting and D. P. Fenner, probably citizens of the United States, under a contract dated August 6, 1878. The horse cars began to move in October 1882; and by March 1, 1885 the system embraced nearly five miles of trackage. Under a contract signed on July 12, 1883, Roderico Toledo assumed responsibility for improving the waterworks of the Guatemalan capital city and installing a sewer system. It is likely that he organized a company consisting of foreigners as well as nationals and employed North American experts. Toledo had intimate contacts with California, which he visited frequently, and since he had associated Californians with himself and other Guatemalans in the telephone company, it seems logical that he should also have employed Californians in connection with this new system of water supply and sewerage.

Construction engineers from the United States had charge of all railway building in Guatemala during the whole of the Barrios epoch. Hardly more than a hundred miles of railroad were in operation at the time of the dictator's death; but railway construction in Guatemala was not an easy task, and well over four hundred additional miles were projected. Although the first contracts were signed in the early 1870's, construction did not begin until 1878.

The first Guatemalan railway opened to traffic was a short line of approximately twenty-six miles between San José and

Escuintla. It was built under a contract signed with William Nanne on April 7, 1877, and was completed in June 1880. The enterprise was given a government guaranty of a net return of fifteen percent annually on a million pesos; but in consideration for government advances for construction this guaranty was surrendered in 1880. The railway was owned and operated by a corporation organized by Nanne in California: the Guatemala Central Railway Company.

The ultimate objective of this railway was Guatemala City, some 46 miles beyond Escuintla; and on July 13, 1880, William Nanne and Lewis Schlessinger signed a contract to build this line. Guatemala agreed to pay an annual subsidy of 125,000 pesos a year for twenty-five years and to advance half a million pesos at once in treasury certificates. A grant of 1,500 *caballerías* (a Guatemalan *caballería* was at that time, at least, the equivalent of nearly 112 acres) of public lands was also included. The surveys already had been made by Albert J. Scherzer, a citizen of the United States, and the railway was virtually completed four years later. At any rate, the first train made the run from San José to Guatemala City in July 1884, with Barrios on board. In the meantime, the two lines, some seventy-two miles in length, had been consolidated under a single corporation, the Central American Pacific Railway and Transportation Company. This seems to have been a New York corporation; but it was largely owned by Archer P. Huntington, Leland Stanford, and Charles Crocker, who were noted for the construction of the western portions of the Central and Southern Pacific Railways of the United States. The use of the word transportation in the company's name probably forecast steamboat aspirations. On July 7, 1884, the corporation obtained from Guatemala a

contract for placing a steamboat on Lake Amatitlán and erecting a hotel on the borders of the lake.

Before the first steam locomotive puffed into Guatemala City to the excitement and rejoicing of the residents, another short railway had been constructed in Guatemala by engineers of the United States. It was a road some twenty-seven miles long between the Pacific port of Champerico and the rich coffee region around Retalhuleu. On March 12, 1881, J. H. Lyman, D. P. Fenner, and J. B. Bunting obtained a contract to build this railway. The Barrios government agreed to pay a subsidy of 700,000 pesos and to grant the contractors 1,000 *caballerías* of public lands to be chosen anywhere in the country. The line was finished and opened to traffic on July 4, 1883. It was built by Thomas Bell of Falker, Bell and Company, located in San Francisco, California, and Sanford Robinson was a prominent member of the company. The railroad was owned and managed by the Champerico and Northern Transportation Company, a California corporation.

What appeared at the time to be a far more important railway enterprise than any hitherto undertaken in Guatemala was envisaged in a contract signed by Barrios with Ulysses S. Grant on October 6, 1882, while the Guatemalan chief executive was in the United States. Grant and his associates already had secured a railway concession from the Mexican government, and the purpose of this Guatemalan contract was to obtain an extension across Central America. Grant agreed to construct 250 miles of railroad in Guatemala within two and a half years from the time his Mexican line reached the Guatemalan frontier; but the severe financial reverses soon encountered by the Civil War general resulted in failure to carry out his railway enterprises.

A rail connection between Guatemala City and Guatemala's Atlantic coast was a project dear to the heart of Barrios. He had initiated plans for such a railway as early as 1880 and had tried in vain to raise a loan in France. Later he levied a head tax on nearly every adult male in Guatemala and collected sufficient funds to pay a railway commission, make surveys, and begin construction. Sylvanus Miller, a North American, headed the corps of engineers which surveyed the route. In 1884 Barrios approved two contracts for building the main line and its branches, the total length of the railroad being estimated at some 240 miles. The first contract was signed on May 1, 1884 with Tully R. Cornick, who represented the construction firm of Shea, Cornick and Company of Knoxville, Tennessee. This company agreed to build a pier at

Puerto Barrios on the Caribbean and to construct 62 miles of track starting from that port, which recently had been named in honor of the Guatemalan statesman. The contractors were to receive 30,000 pesos in cash for each mile constructed and accepted by the Barrios government. Seven days later a contract was signed with J. H. Lyman and J. B. Gordon of New York, who assumed responsibility for building the entire railroad, including the part already assigned to the Tennessee construction company and payment of this company for its work. Lyman and Gordon were to receive 50,000 pesos in Guatemalan bonds for each mile of railway constructed in connection with the entire enterprise. They were also granted 2,500 *caballerías* of public lands, which were to be selected when the railway was finished and accepted by the Guatemalan



OPENING OF THE NEW NORTHERN RAILROAD AT GUATEMALA CITY

The completion of this railroad, constructed through a difficult and hazardous section of the country, represented a great advance in Guatemalan transportation.

government; and they agreed to complete the main line and its branches by June 30, 1888.

Lyman and Gordon also obtained a contract on May 12, 1884, to build a railroad from Cobán to the head of navigation on the Polochic River in north-eastern Guatemala. They failed, however, to fulfill the terms of their contracts and both were forfeited early the following year. In fact, Lyman and Gordon did not even begin construction on either railway, although they are said to have organized in New Jersey a corporation called the Guatemalan Northern Railway Company. Shea, Cornick and Company began work soon after they obtained their contract; but war between Guatemala and El Salvador, the death of Barrios, and shortage of funds interrupted their operations in twelve months or so.

Railway construction in that part of Guatemala was extraordinarily difficult. Heavy rains, swamps, and matted jungle were encountered. The laborers introduced from New Orleans and other parts of the United States by Shea, Cornick and Company were soon exhausted by humid heat and tropical fevers. The government at Washington sent a public vessel to Puerto Barrios in the spring of 1885 to bring some of the victims back home. Many others were buried in Guatemala; some found employment in the plantations along the Caribbean coast. The Guatemala Northern Railway was not completed until 1908.

Barrios granted a number of mining concessions to North Americans. The streams and hills of northeastern Guatemala contained considerable quantities of gold. William Friedman received two concessions, one on May 31, 1881, and another in the same month of the following year. Thomas J. Potts and John W. Knight received a similar concession on

July 30, 1883. Both covered placer-mining districts in the department of Izabal.

Barrios was eager to attract immigrants in order to place under cultivation vast stretches of rich but undeveloped lands. He preferred to attract them from the United States. He offered a bonus of some 30 acres to laborers on the Northern Railway and made at least a few colonization grants to North Americans. On September 26, 1882, Dr. Byron H. Kilbourn of Milwaukee, Wisconsin, was ceded 1,800 hectares (some 4,500 acres) in the department of Izabal on condition that sufficient settlers be introduced within five years to bring half of the tract under cultivation. On June 21, 1883, F. F. Millen was granted 225 hectares for every hundred adult immigrants he might introduce from abroad, each immigrant receiving from the Guatemalan government a farm of 45 hectares. On December 7, 1882, Charles W. Luck, representing the Tropical Products Company of Boston, purchased a tract of 2,000 hectares at sixty cents a hectare, to which he added on December 17, 1883, another block of 3,000 hectares bought at the same price; and it was reported in 1885 that the Andes Agricultural Company had acquired 250,000 acres. All these lands were located in the departments of Izabal, Livingston, or Alta Vera Paz. Comparatively few settlers arrived during the Barrios period; but the foundations of the future thriving banana industry in eastern Guatemala were laid at this time.

On the whole, the relations between Barrios and citizens of the United States were mutually satisfactory. The Guatemalan government raised complaints regarding accidents on the railway between San José and Guatemala City and with reference to failure of the trains to conform to their schedules; but the building

and management of the Champerico and Northern did not provoke any criticism and no difficulties were encountered with reference to the fixing of rates on either road. The nullification of the Lyman and Gordon concessions was in strict accord with the terms of the contracts. Shea, Cornick and Company suffered from delay in the payment of their accounts; but an apparently fair and honorable settlement was soon effected. The California company which undertook to light the streets and plazas of Guatemala City with gas lost both its contract and its property; but compensation was finally

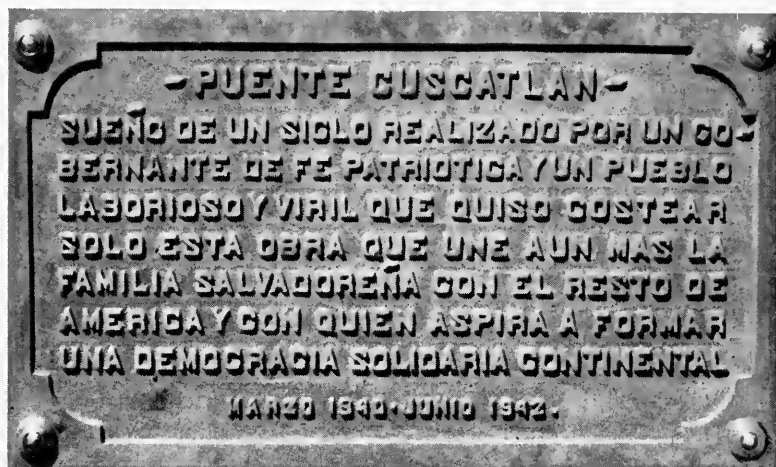
paid in 1890. Citizens of the United States usually expressed admiration for Barrios and Barrios never ceased to appreciate and admire the efficiency and drive of North Americans. Shortly before his death he proclaimed his confidence in the United States and declared his conviction that closer contacts between the people of the two nations would prove beneficial in every way for Guatemala. Relations between the United States and Guatemala during the Barrios epoch were conducted for the most part in the spirit of the Good Neighbor, and they seem to have contributed to the welfare of both countries.



Courtesy of the Guatemalan Legation, Washington, D. C.

INTERIOR VIEW OF LA AURORA AIRPORT, GUATEMALA CITY

Transportation in Guatemala today includes not only rail and water facilities but modern air lines and landing fields as well.



Courtesy of E. E. Valentini

Cuscatlán Bridge

E. E. VALENTINI

JUNE 6, 1942, was a great day in the smallest of the continental American republics. At 10 o'clock in the morning, His Excellency General Maximiliano Hernández Martínez, President of El Salvador, unveiled the dedicatory tablet at the western entrance of the Cuscatlán Bridge, thus opening the inaugural ceremonies celebrating the completion of one of the most interesting local developments on the Pan American Highway, that artery of communications destined to diffuse the red blood of international understanding on the American Continent.

The tablet was impressive in its modest simplicity, at variance with accepted custom. It reads as follows:

Cuscatlán Bridge,
 Dream of a century,
 Realized by a leader of patriotic faith
 And an industrious and virile people,
 Who themselves wished to pay for this work
 Uniting the Salvadorean family even more
 closely to the rest of America,
 With which it aspires to form a solidary continental democracy.

The wording is in running text without

punctuation; I have translated it from the Spanish and divided it into its component concepts.

Both the bridge and the river crossed by it have certain unique aspects.

The Lempa River rises in Guatemala and flows southward into northwestern Salvador. It loops east to the border of Honduras and then turns abruptly south and southwestward through El Salvador, cutting the country into three sections. On innumerable occasions the eastern and western sections of the country have been isolated from each other because of flood waters. Comparatively speaking, the Lempa has been like our own Mississippi as it used to be before bridges and ferries came into a use which passes unperceived by the younger generation.

Heretofore, El Salvador's network of roads has been sharply divided by the Lempa River and its flood plain. To drive or ride from San Salvador, the capital, to the important port of La Unión on the Gulf of Fonseca—terminus of all rail communication between the United States,

Mexico, and Central America—has entailed crossing the Lempa by means of a “tropical ferry.” This delightful but wholly uneconomical means of crossing rivers is composed merely of a wooden barge or scow held in place by an overhead cable and propelled across the stream by the force of the current. In the past, many lives and valuable cargoes have been lost by ferrying. At times traffic has been delayed for days at the landing place, due to the ferry’s limited carrying capacity or to high flood waters or both.

Below the Colorado River, all the way to the far end of South America, very few rivers of consequence empty into the Pacific. Some flow northward, one large system southward. The greatest river in

the world—the Amazon—runs eastward; the terrible African airs pick up a fraction of the Atlantic Ocean, the moisture-laden clouds strike the eastern slopes of the snow-covered Andes within a hundred miles of the Pacific and through the greatest drainage basin in the world, the transformed waters of the Atlantic flow back to rejoin their parent body, in a voyage four thousand miles in length.

As an exception to the general rule, Nature reserved for the smallest of the continental American republics the phenomenon of containing one of the few large rivers in Latin America flowing into the Pacific Ocean—the Lempa River in El Salvador.

Three years ago, the bridge over the



Courtesy of E. E. Valentini

CUSCATLÁN BRIDGE IN EL SALVADOR

This, the largest suspension bridge on the direct route of the Pan American Highway, was opened with special ceremonies June 6, 1942.



Courtesy of E. E. Valentini

FERRY CROSSING THE LEMPA RIVER

Before the construction of the new bridge, it was necessary to cross the Lempa River by means of ferries.

Lempa was still little more than a century-old dream. And last June, I had the honor of being invited by the President, General Martínez, to be present at the inauguration of this imposing proof of the firmness of purpose of the Salvadorean government and people.

The Cuscatlán Bridge is not a large bridge as measured by American standards. Its total length with approaches is 1,350 feet. Its value must be measured by the ferry it replaces and its effect upon the economy of the country. It must be compared, not with what we know but with what our forefathers saw—the bridging of the Mississippi and the initiation of uninterrupted traffic over a disheartening natural obstacle.

And still, the Cuscatlán has its own features. It is the largest suspension bridge on the direct route of the Pan American Highway in either North or South America. It is probably the world's longest bridge suspended by cable strands. These

strands are single cables one and fifteen-sixteenths of an inch in diameter—just under two inches—of which there are thirty-two, sixteen on each side. Had the bridge been a few yards longer it would have been impossible to hold it up in that manner; it would have been necessary to bring special apparatus from the United States and spin large individual cables at the site, with all the attendant difficulties. The bridge does not even join two towns located on opposite banks; the nearest, several miles back from either end, are now united by a paved road running over a bridge which spans in lonely grandeur a unique tropical stream.

I should like especially to invite the attention of the reader to the dedicatory tablet, the wording of which is also unusual. Does it indulge in self-glorification, no matter how well deserved? It does not. Does the bridge unite two halves of a political unit, separated by an almost insuperable barrier since the begin-

ning of its existence? No. It unites the country as a single entity even more closely with *the rest of America*, a considerable fraction of the earth's surface and population. Does this country aspire to unify itself by means of this bridge? No; it aspires to form a solidary continental democracy, in conjunction with all the other nations of the Western Hemisphere. Brave and noble words! Do not they—emanating from a country of about the size of Kentucky and containing less than two million inhabitants—establish some sort of precedent and set some sort of example? I believe they do. I hope that those responsible for such tablets may read and profit. I can even dare to hope that some well known bridge tablets may be replaced by others.

In his speech inaugurating the Cuscatlán Bridge, President Martínez made an

interesting announcement. The next step in the development of his tiny country is to be a hydroelectric plant on the upper reaches of the Lempa River, for the generation of electric light and power for the entire country. While no details are available as yet, studies for this project are well advanced. The President eloquently said, "A house without light is a house without joy, without soul." When the people of El Salvador wanted a bridge and were willing to pay for it, they got it. If the people want electricity for factories and homes they will get it. Dreams can be realized by governors of patriotic faith and industrious and virile peoples, all over the world.

When all the circumstances are taken into consideration, the Lempa River, and the Cuscatlán Bridge crossing it, have an *atractivo* all their own.



Earning and Living in Colonial Mexico City

II. Workers and Taxes

CHESTER L. GUTHRIE

National Archives, Washington

SUPPLYING the trader with many of his wares, the industries of 17th century Mexico City showed a very high development. The busy shops of the artisans filled most of the streets adjoining the Plaza Mayor, and fairly hummed with activity. Guilds, or *gremios* as they were called, formed the backbone of the industrial organization. They not only afforded a living for the skilled labor, but gave employment to many of the lower, unskilled classes. "The guilds of the artisans take in very many people, and excepting the masters, the rest, which include almost all of the workers, are from the different racial mixtures," remarked one of the viceroys in speaking of the general economic life. Even the Indians found a place in the system.

If a trade were considered important to the community and sufficiently difficult to learn so as to require some training, it could, upon the petition of its members, be formed into a guild. An example of the starting of one of these associations occurred early in the seventeenth century when the needle makers petitioned for a guild. However, since there were only three

masters of the art of needle making in the City of Mexico, it was decided to give them temporary rules for awhile, and in the meantime to refer their case to a committee.

Fifteen sections were included in the regulations for the needle-makers. These ranged from the procedure of examination to the prices for the various needles. First it was stated that there should be an examiner and inspector who should be a master. He was chosen at the beginning of each year by the masters who owned their own shops. However, until there should be at least eight masters, the inspector was to be chosen by the government regulator of elections. No one was to practice the trade without examination, and any master who came from elsewhere than Mexico City had to get a license from the town council. Indians, mestizos, Negroes and mulattoes were not to engage in the trade or to be allowed to take the examination, which was both oral and practical. The fee was six pesos paid to the examining officials.

As for the masters, each was allowed only one shop apiece. All products had to be of excellent quality, made from the best steel. No more needles were to be imported from Castile, and only licensed masters could sell needles. In order to see that all of the provisions were carefully carried out, the inspector was to visit three times a year, in company with a magistrate and deputies, all of the places of business. Further

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regulations were that in case a master who was married should die, his widow should be allowed to continue the business for four years, or until she remarried. Prices were set at so many needles a real. Eight sewing needles, six tailor needles, four surgeon needles, four silk-workers' needles, four cobblers' needles, or four muleteers' needles were given for a real. In this way was launched, in the manner usual to affairs of its kind, one of the many guilds of Mexico City.

From time to time the regulations for a guild became antiquated. This was the case of the silk and velvet weavers, or *arte mayor*, as the trade was called. The masters of this guild asked that they be allowed to raise the examining fee. Since the time when the silk and velvet workers had been organized, their officers and celebrations had so increased that the ten pesos fee was not considered enough. In fact, since the three examiners, the public notary, and the majordomo got only one-third of the ten pesos, for two-thirds were allotted to the general fund, it was pointed out that the officials got less than a peso each for the two-day ordeal. Consequently, a forty pesos fee was asked, and granted by the city. All of this, as was the custom of the period, was published through the streets by the town criers, shouting out the new conditions, and explaining the penalties for not being examined.

School teachers had their guild as well. They had their masters, examiners, and inspectors. Likewise they attempted to keep their ordinances in step with changing conditions. Their aims were to use precept and example to obtain the best development of the children. This was to be done by having the teachers scientific in attitude, wholesome in living, pacific in actions, and married. Unmarried men were not even to be examined for admit-

tance to the profession, for it was thought that a woman was needed to care for the children's health and happiness. Furthermore, masters were to exhibit only their own work, for it seemed that the nefarious practice had arisen of buying the proper quality of specimens for exhibit, and relying upon hired teachers in the class room, while the master himself did not know so much as how to write. The parents in the meantime were of the opinion that their children were getting the best of instruction.

At times the power of the guilds was a danger to the public, and yet at other times it was not sufficient to protect the members themselves. The bakers, for example, quite often bought so heavily in the grain market that a shortage was felt in the city. Prohibitions upon having more than two days' supply in stock at one time were avoided by storing the grain with the millers, and having it ground into flour as was needed. On the other hand, the tradesmen had to submit often to losses from officials in order to keep in favor with the members of the government. Sometimes bills of many thousand pesos were incurred by high officials and no action could be taken until the debtor's death, for besides the danger of bringing down on the tradesman's head the ire of the powerful, there was no magistrate before whom it was possible to get justice. One baker put in a claim for 9,000 pesos on the estate of one of the members of the *audiencia*—a great governing body second only to the viceroy as a power in Mexico City.

Constant vigilance was necessary on the part of the trade organizations. Not only were there cases of fraud and unfair practices within the membership, but more frequently unauthorized persons might absorb some of the business illegally. The makers of wine containers complained in 1614 that

a number of "unauthorized and incompetent" people had entered the business.

Sometimes, as was to be expected, complaints were made with little foundation other than a desire to maintain a complete monopoly. The silk guild attempted to bring the production of floss silk under its control. However, such a move affected the rich merchants; so the attempt was checked. The large dealers had been letting much of their silk for floss out to the Indians and the poor to be finished. Since there was no question of weaving or spinning, but only one of straightening out the strands, the cumbersome system of guild examination and supervision seemed unnecessary.

In case an artisan was a newcomer to Mexico City, he had to obtain a license from the city council to open a shop. The letter of examination from a city in Spain or elsewhere was sufficient. Often the letter was said to be lost, as in the case of a cobbler in 1621. He pointed out that he was a poor man—which was the way most such petitions began—and asked for a temporary license until he could obtain a copy from Spain. He was granted a six months' license. Some would claim to be too poor to be examined, and would ask for permission to practice their trade until such time as they could afford to pay the necessary fees and buy enough material. Those receiving such licenses ranged from confectioners to school teachers, including dyers, tailors, carpenters, chandlers, blacksmiths, saddlemakers, swordsmiths, hatters, and many other trades.

There were many people who came under the classification neither of merchants nor of artisans. These depended upon wages for their livelihood. Trade and industry employed a large number in the lesser capacities, while personal service accounted for another considerable group.

The usual remuneration given for this type of work was thought sufficient for the laborers' needs, at least by the viceroy Montesclaros in his report to the king in 1607. The viceroy stated that the pay was such that if the Indians, who were the most numerous of the laborers, were to save their money, they could, by working part of the year, manage to exist in idleness for the rest of the time. However, because of the Indian's manner of living, if such wages were not paid, he would often go hungry, and also not be able to pay his tribute, concluded the viceroy.

Indicative of the customary scale was that paid by the government. There were two types of labor used. One was forced, and consequently obtained at a low figure, and the other was free, contracted for each day. This last could command a higher price for its services because of competitive bidding from private enterprise. Public works occupied most of the wage-earning employees of the government. The forced labor came from *repartimientos*, or assessments on each district for a certain number of men to be used in a given undertaking. For example, in 1600 it was ordered that 24 Indians be assigned each week to street cleaning. Twelve were to be taken from Mexico City, and the rest from two of the outlying towns—six from Tacuba and six from Tacubaya. The legal rate of pay and good treatment were to be given to the workers. Usually going along with the *repartimiento* of men was an assessment of materials as well.

Because of the day by day nature of the labor relationship, there was some difficulty in obtaining sufficient men each time for the job. This, in fact, was the most trying part of the Spanish overseer's activities. Between four and five o'clock in the morning the overseer would have

to search through the Indian quarter to find enough workers for the day's needs. In 1606 the overseers asked for a raise in pay because of the arduous quality of the positions. They were getting five pesos a week. Those who had to hire Indians were then given seven pesos, while those with the simpler task of seeing that the Indians from the *repartimientos* arrived, were advanced to six pesos. This was a reasonably good salary for the period.

Labor wages were of course much lower than those of the supervisors. In 1617 the Indians assigned by *repartimiento* to the Alameda were paid nine reales a week. In cleaning away some refuse near the fountain in the Plaza Mayor in 1614, the first day 21 Indians and 3 native constables were employed at two reales each. These, however, were contract labor, and consequently were more expensive. For the subsequent days, wages paid to the workers were two and one-half reales, while the three constables' price remained fixed. As a comparison, it may be noted that the large baskets used to carry off the refuse cost, when new, five reales each.

An attempt to retrench in expenses in 1618 gave a glimpse of salary rates for officials. The solicitor general was retained at 330 pesos a year, and it was suggested that he be cut to 220 pesos. Fifty pesos was the rate of pay for the warden of the Alameda, but since he had certain other concessions, it was suggested that his pay be stopped. A treasury porter was given 300 pesos a year, and the warden of the *alhóndiga* (grain market) was allotted 330 pesos a year; however, since the latter had his living quarters furnished and obtained "certain other advantages," it was suggested that his salary be placed at 200 pesos. In the same manner, a porter less than a decade previously had asked for a raise to 300 pesos a year and a stable for his horse. He was granted 280 pesos,

and the request for a place to keep his horse was referred to a committee. Other similar salaries were paid by such organizations as the *consulado*. The prior and the two consuls were given 500 pesos each a year while the treasurer received 200 pesos.

Paid more or less according to the time spent on public business were a number of professional men. A bonesetter was given 300 pesos a year, an interpreter, 70, a barber and surgeon, 50, and lawyers, 166. While such salaries would be almost impossible to compare accurately with full-time employment, still they gave some indication of earnings. Each of those employed had to spend a little time almost every day on city tasks. From this it can be seen that the quarter of a peso paid to day laborers was not so impossibly low as it might at first seem.

Approximately the standard of wages were prices during the century. Even during the closing years when, because of famine conditions, prices were very high, it was reported by a traveler, whose tastes might safely be said far to exceed those of the laborers, that it was possible to exist in Mexico City for one-half a peso a day. With the scanty fare and low living standards of the Indian and mixed blooded groups in society, two and one-half reales, in all probability, would have been sufficient.

Maize, perhaps the most fundamental commodity, as mentioned in Part I, averaged ten reales a *fanega*,¹ while other articles of consumption sold at comparable levels. Beef, beginning at fourteen pounds for a real, soon raised in price to around six to seven pounds. There it remained during most of the century. Mutton sold from three to four pounds a real. Bread was also a basic item. Its price was kept from twenty ounces to sixteen ounces for one-half a real. Shoes

¹ A *fanega* equalled 1.6 bushels.

were sold usually for less than a peso, sometimes even as low as three or four reales, depending, of course, upon the cost of leather. A cuartillo of wine, approximately a gallon, sold for two and one-half reales—the one-half real was a tax to pay for the project for drainage of the valley. Other prices might be quoted, but these should be sufficient to demonstrate the approximate price level to be found in Mexico City during the period. In fact, wages and living costs ran so close together that any unusual change in the balance, due to crop failures or to successful monopolies, resulted in hardship and even unrest.

Two phases of economic life remain to be mentioned further. One is concerned with taxation and the other with charity. Taxes in 17th century Mexico City, while heavy, were by no means stifling levies. Many of them would sound very familiar today, such as for example, sales taxes and taxes on liquor, playing cards, cosmetics, and other such luxuries of the times. The poor, however, through the more common levies, perhaps felt the weight of the collector's hand more than any other class.

For the Indians, the most important tax was that known as the tribute. It was paid by every Indian adult between the ages of twenty to sixty years. In amount the tribute was set at one peso, of which a chicken might be substituted for one real, and during the first quarter of the century, maize might be given in part of the payment. Besides the Indians, the Negroes and mulattoes were assessed a tribute as well. Other taxes, such as the sales tax—from which the Indian alone enjoyed exemption—were felt very keenly by the poor.

Charity was practiced on a very large

scale in Mexico City. Monasteries gave out maize and vegetables each week to the poor, as well as prepared meals. Hospitals were maintained for the care of the impoverished sick, and it was the custom of great personages, such as the viceroy and the archbishop, to be lavish in the matter of charity. The archbishop was always outstanding in this regard. Archbishop Aguiar y Serios Gallego was said to have given, in 1698, about 100,000 pesos in charity more than he received in revenue each year. The viceroy had 100 pesos distributed every Friday at the palace, and twenty *fanegas* of maize given away every day. Furthermore, it was estimated that about 3,000 pesos a month went out in charity from other sources. Even the state offered a type of aid by maintaining medical care for the poor, the widows, the orphans, and the Indians.

Finally it may be said that colonial Mexico City exhibited an interesting, complex, and significant pattern of economic life. An age of scarcity was made to support the population of a large city through a delicately balanced machinery of governmental control and individual enterprise. Wages and the cost of living stayed close together. Trade and industry strove through the guilds and associations to supply the demanding market with sufficient quantities of goods at prices which allowed a workable profit. Sharp practices were frowned upon, and the public was given as much protection by the officials as the circumstances permitted. Even the beggars had their place in the budgets of state and private individuals. Thus the rich and the poor, the mighty and the lowly pursued their enterprises in a restrictive, class economy, tempered with governmental intervention and public charity.



Courtesy of Abel Lecroix

PORT-AU-PRINCE

In this pleasant tropical city, capital of Haiti, are blended the beauties of seacoast and mountains.

Haiti, Land of the Sun

THE traveler who has sailed down through the Atlantic, past the jewel-like chain of the Bahamas, will recall how the Republic of Haiti, lying resplendent in the deep blue Caribbean, and beckons with inviting grace and charm. Columbus himself, America's first tourist, marveled at the island's tropical splendor, and his enthusiasm has been echoed in the delight and pleasure of many other tourists.

At first glance, from afar, the island looks like a jumbled mass of purple-shaded mountains rising from the water's very edge. But a closer approach shows that the coast is dented with countless bays and inlets that offer safe harbor to vessels,

and in the interior a prodigal nature has laid out an intricate and fascinating design of fertile plains and valleys.

Haiti's climate is agreeable and remarkably equable. It varies, of course, from lowland to mountains but there are no extremes of temperature. Its economy is agricultural and its products abundant, varied, and of high quality. Haiti's fine-flavored coffee is appreciated everywhere it is known and before the war it was in special favor and demand in France. The sugar cane plantations yield plentiful crops from which rum of incomparable bouquet is made. Tropical fruits—oranges, grapefruit, bananas, pineapples, sun-ripened,

luscious, and of exquisite flavor—abound in all parts of the island. Select Haitian cotton can easily compete with any others for length and softness of fiber. Henequen is being grown, and nurseries for rubber trees have been established in cooperation with the United States Department of Agriculture.

The capital, Port-au-Prince, located on the Gulf of Gonaïves, has a population of about 125,000. Its relatively warm climate is tempered in the mornings by a land breeze and in the afternoons by the fresh tangy breeze from the sea. Its well-paved streets are straight and regular, being interrupted only by the several plazas such as the Champs-de-Mars (a park, military field, and recreation center), and the Place de l'Indépendance, whose gardens are filled with tropical flowers. There are several good hotels, restaurants, and clubs, and the public buildings of

outstanding interest include the National Palace, Palace of Justice, National Assembly building, National Library, School of Medicine, and the Cathedral. Not far distant from Port-au-Prince are Pétionville and Kenscoff, delightful summer retreats reached by roads that wind upward through the mountains while unending vistas of sparkling streams and verdant plains unfold below.

The capital and its vicinity, however, are not the only points of interest to the visitor who comes to Haiti. There are many smaller but none the less attractive, progressive, and well-ordered towns, such as Jacmel and Aux Cayes on the southern coast; St. Marc and Gonaïves, where Dessalines proclaimed the country's independence in 1804, on the west; and, on the northern coast, Cap Haïtien, second city of the Republic in both size and commercial importance. Cap Haïtien is con-



MAIN HIGHWAY FROM CAP HAÏTIEN TO GONAÏVES AND PORT-AU-PRINCE



Courtesy of the Haitian Bureau of Public Works

KING HENRI CHRISTOPHE'S CITADEL

This amazing structure, lying silently on its mountain top, is a grim and ghostly reminder of King Christophe's years of dictatorship.

nected with the capital by the country's main highway and it was itself the capital of colonial Haiti and later the seat of Henri Christophe's kingdom. No mention of Haiti or of the fabulous King Christophe would be complete without at least a few words about his grand pleasure palace, Sans Souci, and his mighty fortress, La Citadelle Laferrière. Both of these lie a few miles to the southeast of Cap-Haïtien, Sans Souci at the foot of the mountain Le Bonnet à l'Évêque (The Bishop's Cap), and the Citadel atop its very peak, resembling nothing so much as an immense ship riding at anchor, gray, motionless, forbidding, and ghostlike, suspended between the green of the mountain and the

blue of the sky. A monstrous symbol of the driving will and unbridled force of the dictator who directed its building, it is one of those rare and amazing works of man that must be seen to be fully comprehended and appreciated. A visit to the ruins of the stately and splendid pleasure palace and the remote and lofty fortress furnishes an unforgettable and thrilling climax to a tour of the sun-drenched and brightly beautiful Republic of Haiti.

As a background for a trip to Haiti, a résumé of its long and turbulent history seems not to be amiss. Smallest of the twenty-one American republics, it occupies, with the Dominican Republic, the island that Columbus discovered on his



Courtesy of Madelaine Sylvain

PÉTIONVILLE

This delightful little town is one of Haiti's several popular summer retreats.

first voyage in 1492 and named Hispaniola. Spain took possession of it and of its native Indians, practically all of whom disappeared within a few years through the hardships of war or the heavy labor they were forced to perform. To repopulate the island, Bishop Las Casas in 1517 obtained permission from the Spanish Crown to bring over African Negroes, thus establishing the African-American slave traffic.

French occupation of the island began in 1625 when French pirates established a base on one of the small islands off Hispaniola's west coast. As time went on, the French spread into the western portion of Hispaniola itself, and finally by the Treaty of Ryswick in 1697 Spain ceded the French-occupied territory to France, which named it Saint-Domingue. It fast became one of the most important and

thriving of the West Indian colonies, due partly to the able and business-like administration by France but due in even greater measure to the labor of the slaves, who continued to be brought over from Africa in large numbers each year. So great was the importation of slaves, in fact, that in 1789, of the island's total population of 470,000, the whites numbered only 30,000, mulattoes and free Negroes 40,000, and the remainder of 400,000, more than 85 percent, were Negro slaves.

The story of Haiti's struggle for emancipation and independence fills a colorful and exciting page in the history of the American republics. Reverberations of the French Revolution of 1789 leaped across the Atlantic to the colony of Saint-Domingue, striking there a responsive chord that found expression in strong efforts for the abolition of slavery and the

granting of citizenship rights to the Negroes. Slavery was abolished by a decree issued in August 1793, but years of turmoil and struggle, destruction of property and loss of life, followed until in 1801 Toussaint Louverture, a former slave, convened an assembly that adopted a constitution for the colony and elected him as governor. Napoleon, whose star was then in the ascendant in France, sent an expedition of 70 warships and 25,000 troops to quell the rebellion and reestablish the former status. Through a trap Louverture was imprisoned but Jean Jacques Dessalines, a Negro, and Alexandre Pétion, a mestizo, both generals in the French Army, gave the signal for revolt and after a year of bitter fighting, the French Army was vanquished. On January 1, 1804, Dessalines proclaimed the independence of the former French colony and the new Negro nation adopted the old Indian name of Haiti. Thus, Haiti was the second nation of the entire American Continent to establish its independence. It is today the only French-speaking republic in the

Western Hemisphere, and one of the few Negro nations in the world.

Dessalines, first chief of the Haitian Government, assumed the title of emperor in 1804. After his death in 1806, a republic was established with Henri Christophe as its first president. But he, too, proclaimed himself king, even as Alexandre Pétion was being elected to succeed him. As a result the nation was divided, with Christophe ruling as king in the north and west until his death in 1820 and Pétion governing the republic in the south as president from 1807 to his death in 1818.

Under Pétion—one of the most enlightened, noble, and benevolent personages of the era of American independence, a great humanitarian who ardently desired to see extended to the entire continent the principles of liberty, equality, and fraternity on which the Republic of Haiti was founded—his country achieved a distinction that gives it special glory and luster among the nations of the Western Hemisphere. This was the aid, in the form of arms, ammunition, and unlimited sympathy and moral



Courtesy of Gaston Bellande

MUNICIPAL LIBRARY AT JACMEL

Many of Haiti's smaller towns, such as Jacmel on the southern coast, are as progressive and modern as its capital city.

support freely and liberally given to Bolívar, not once but on two separate occasions in 1816, to help him in the war of independence of South America—a war that brought forth five new and independent American nations. The sole request made by Pétion, when he offered all the resources of his little country to Bolívar, was that in return Bolívar would abolish

slavery in the countries he liberated. So it is good to remember that in 1816 Haiti, small and itself established as an independent republic only a scant dozen years before, was already putting into practice the spirit we now call Pan Americanism and that it helped materially as well as ethically to shape the pattern of this Hemisphere.



Registration of Treaties in the Pan American Union

MANUEL CANYES

Acting Chief, Juridical Division of the Pan American Union

IN accordance with Article V of the plan for the registration of treaties at the Pan American Union, approved in paragraph 3 of Resolution XXIX of the Eighth International Conference of American States held at Lima in 1938, the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union published in its November 1941 issue a list of the treaties registered with the Union from the beginning of the procedure in December 1939 up to June 30, 1941. That first list comprised 103 treaties, conventions and agreements concluded between Governments, members of the Pan American Union, or with nonmember States.

The same issue of the BULLETIN carried the text of the plan approved by the Eighth Conference for the registration of treaties at the Union. The object of the plan is "to establish adequate means for keeping the Governments of the Americas regu-

larly and fully informed on the treaties signed by them . . . which may take effect in the future."

The method followed in each case is for the respective government to transmit to the Pan American Union a certified copy of the treaty, convention, or agreement to be registered, together with twenty-one additional uncertified copies. The Pan American Union thereupon sends a certificate of registration to the Government registering the document, and certifies the other copies, communicating them to the various members of the Union. The two remaining copies are filed in the Library and the Juridical Divisions, respectively, of the Pan American Union.

The complete list of the treaties, conventions, and agreements registered with the Pan American Union from June 30, 1941 to June 30, 1942, begins on the next page.

List of Treaties, Conventions and Agreements Registered with the Pan American Union from June 30, 1941 to June 30, 1942, in accordance with the Plan Approved by the Eighth International Conference of American States

BILATERAL TREATIES

ARGENTINA—COLOMBIA

Title	Signature	Exchange of ratifications	Effective date	Registered	Reg. No.
Treaty of commerce.....	Oct. 17, 1940.....	Oct. 18, 1941..	Oct. 18, 1941....	Nov. 27, 1941....	3 Col.
ARGENTINA—CUBA					
Treaty of commerce and protocol.....	Dec. 20, 1940.....	Apr. 4, 1942.....	2 Cuba.
ARGENTINA—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA					
Agreement renewing the agreement of June 29, 1940, concerning military aviation instructors.	Notes of May 23 and June 3, 1941.	June 29, 1941....	Oct. 4, 1941....	90 U. S. A.
BOLIVIA—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA					
Agreement regarding a military aviation mission.	Sept. 4, 1941.....	Sept. 4, 1941....	Jan. 13, 1942....	99 U. S. A.
COLOMBIA—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA					
Supplementary agreement modifying the agreement of Nov. 23, 1938, regarding a naval mission.	Aug. 30, 1941.....	Aug. 30, 1941....	Oct. 25, 1941....	93 U. S. A.
Military mission agreement continuing in effect the agreement of Nov. 23, 1938.	Notes of Nov. 19, 1941, and Feb. 19, 1942.	Feb. 19, 1942....	June 17, 1942....	119 U. S. A.

BILATERAL TREATIES—Continued

COLOMBIA—VENEZUELA

Title	Signature	Exchange of ratifications	Effective date	Registered	Reg. No.
Treaty of non-aggression, conciliation, arbitration and judicial settlement.	Dec. 17, 1939	Sept. 12, 1941 ..	Sept. 12, 1941	Nov. 4, 1941	2 Col.
Treaty on boundaries and river navigation.	Apr. 5, 1941	Sept. 12, 1941 ..	Sept. 12, 1941	Nov. 4, 1941	1 Col.

COSTA RICA—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Agreement for cooperative rubber investigations in Costa Rica.	Notes of Apr. 19 and June 16 and additional note of June 18, 1941.	June 16, 1941	Feb. 28, 1942	109 U. S. A.
Agreement concerning a military mission	July 14, 1941	July 14, 1941	Oct. 4, 1941	91 U. S. A.

CUBA—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Second supplementary reciprocal trade agreement and exchange of notes.	Dec. 23, 1941	Jan. 5, 1942	Apr. 4, 1942	114 U. S. A.
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DOMINICAN REPUBLIC—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Convention regarding the collection and application of the customs revenues of the Dominican Republic, amending the convention of Dec. 27, 1924.	Sept. 24, 1940	Mar. 10, 1941 ..	Mar. 10, 1941	Oct. 15, 1941	92 U. S. A.
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ECUADOR—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Agreement concerning an additional article to the naval mission agreement of Dec. 12, 1940.	Apr. 30, 1941.....	Apr. 30, 1941.....	July 25, 1941.....	84 U. S. A.
Agreement concerning an additional article to the military aviation mission agreement of Dec. 12, 1940.	Apr. 30, 1941.....	Apr. 30, 1941.....	Aug. 7, 1941.....	88 U. S. A.

EL SALVADOR—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Agreement regarding the detail of a military officer to serve as Director of the Military School and of the Military Academy of El Salvador.	Mar. 27, 1941.....	Mar. 27, 1941.....	Jan. 13, 1942.....	100 U. S. A.
Agreement regarding the exchange of official publications.	Notes of Nov. 21 and 27, 1941.	Nov. 27, 1941.....	Mar. 26, 1942.....	112 U. S. A.

GUATEMALA—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Agreement regarding the detail of a military officer to serve as Director of the Polytechnic School of Guatemala.	May 27, 1941.....	May 27, 1941.....	July 25, 1941.....	85 U. S. A.
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HAITI—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Agreement regarding a military mission.....	May 23, 1941.....	May 23, 1941.....	Jan. 22, 1942.....	104 U. S. A.
Agreement regarding the exchange of official publications.	Notes of May 29 and June 5, 1941.	May 29, 1941.....	Dec. 17, 1941.....	98 U. S. A.
Supplementary financial agreement.....	Sept. 30, 1941.....	Sept. 30, 1941.....	Feb. 28, 1942.....	108 U. S. A.
Agreement regarding Haitian finances, to replace the agreement of Aug. 7, 1933.	Sept. 13, 1941.....	Oct. 1, 1941.....	Feb. 27, 1942.....	105 U. S. A.

MEXICO—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Supplementary extradition convention.....	Aug. 16, 1939.....	Feb. 17, 1941..	July 25, 1941.....	82 U. S. A.
Agreement concerning the transit of military aircraft.	Apr. 1, 1941.....	Apr. 25, 1941..	July 25, 1941.....	87 U. S. A.
Agreement for expropriation of petroleum properties.	Notes of Nov. 19, 1941.....	Nov. 19, 1941.....	Apr. 15, 1942.....	116 U. S. A.
Claims convention.....	Nov. 19, 1941.....	Apr. 2, 1942....	June 8, 1942.....	118 U. S. A.

BILATERAL TREATIES—Continued
NICARAGUA—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Title	Signature	Exchange of ratifications	Effective date	Registered	Reg. No.
Agreement concerning the detail of a military officer to serve as Director of the Military Academy of the National Guard of Nicaragua.	May 22, 1941	May 22, 1941	Nov. 28, 1941	97 U. S. A.

PANAMA—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Arrangement regarding relief from double income tax on shipping profits.	Notes of Jan. 15, Feb. 8, and Mar. 28, 1941.	Mar. 28, 1941 ...	Jan. 13, 1942.	101 U. S. A.
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PERU—UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Agreement regarding the detail of a military officer of the United States to serve as assistant to adviser of remount service of the Peruvian army.	Mar. 11, 1942	Feb. 14, 1942.	May 15, 1942	117 U. S. A.
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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—VENEZUELA

Proclamation by the President of the United States, issued Dec. 26, 1941, pursuant to Article VII of the reciprocal trade agreement between the United States and Venezuela of Nov. 6, 1939, allocating the tariff quota on crude petroleum and fuel oil.	Mar. 3, 1942	110 U. S. A.
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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—AUSTRALIA

Treaty amending in their application to Australia certain provisions of the treaty for the advancement of peace between the United States of America and Great Britain signed Sept. 15, 1914.	Sept. 6, 1940.....	Aug. 13, 1941..	Aug. 13, 1941....	Nov. 7, 1941.....	94 U. S. A.
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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—CANADA

Treaty amending in their application to Canada certain provisions of the treaty for the advancement of peace between the United States of America and Great Britain signed Sept. 15, 1914.	Sept. 6, 1940.....	Aug. 13, 1941..	Aug. 13, 1941....	Nov. 7, 1941.....	95 U. S. A.
Supplementary reciprocal trade agreement amending with regard to fox furs and skins the agreement of Nov. 17, 1938.	Dec. 13, 1940.....	Aug. 13, 1941..	Provisionally Dec. 20, 1940; definitively Aug. 14, 1941.	Jan. 16, 1942....	102 U. S. A.
Arrangement concerning the temporary diversion for power purposes of additional waters of the Niagara river above the Falls.	Notes of May 20, 1941..	June 13, 1941....	Sept. 19, 1941....	89 U. S. A.
Arrangement regarding joint committees on economic cooperation.	Aide-mémoire of Mar. 17 and June 6 and 17, 1941.	June 17, 1941....	Feb. 27, 1942....	107 U. S. A.
Arrangement regarding visits in uniform by members of defense forces.	Notes of Aug. 28 and Sept. 4, 1941	Sept. 11, 1941....	Apr. 4, 1942.....	113 U. S. A.
Supplementary arrangement for the additional temporary diversion for power purposes of waters of the Niagara river above the Falls.	Notes of Oct. 27 and Nov. 27, 1941.	Nov. 27, 1941....	Feb. 27, 1942....	106 U. S. A.
Proclamation by the President of the United States of America, issued Dec. 22, 1941, pursuant to the reciprocal trade agreement between the United States and Canada signed Nov. 17, 1938, and related notes, allocating the tariff quota on heavy cattle during the calendar year 1942.	Mar. 3, 1942.....	111 U. S. A.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—Iceland

Agreement for the defense of Iceland by United States forces.	Messages of July 1, 1941.	July 1, 1941.....	Apr. 9, 1942.....	115 U. S. A.
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BILATERAL TREATIES—Continued
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—LIBERIA

Title	Signature	Exchange of ratifications	Effective date	Registered	Reg. No.
Conciliation treaty.....	Aug. 21, 1939.....	Mar. 13, 1941..	Mar. 13, 1941...	July 25, 1941....	86 U. S. A.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—NEW ZEALAND

Treaty amending in their application to New Zealand certain provisions of the treaty for the advancement of peace between the United States of America and Great Britain signed Sept. 15, 1914.	Sept. 6, 1940.....	Aug. 13, 1941..	Aug. 13, 1941....	Nov. 7, 1941.....	96 U. S. A.
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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—SWITZERLAND

Supplementary extradition treaty.....	Jan. 31, 1940.....	Apr. 8, 1941...	Apr. 8, 1941.....	July 25, 1941....	83 U. S. A.
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UNITED STATES OF AMERICA—UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS

Agreement regarding commercial relations.....	Notes of Aug. 2, 1941.....	Aug. 6, 1941.....	Jan. 19, 1942....	103 U. S. A.
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MULTILATERAL TREATIES¹

Supplementary proclamation by the President of the United States of America, issued February 27, 1942, declaring that the *Inter-American Coffee Agreement* signed at Washington November 28, 1940 entered into full force among all the signatory countries on December 30, 1941. *Registered with the Pan American Union on June 19, 1942 (U. S. A.).*

¹ See also "Status of the Pan American Treaties and Conventions," issued July 1, 1942 by the Juridical Division, Pan American Union.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be

When a reference stands by itself in parenthesis, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of measures already published are inserted with letters following the number (e. g., 2a).

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, "Boletín Oficial"; Brazil, "Diário Oficial"; Chile, "Diario Oficial"; Colombia, "Diario Oficial"; Costa Rica, "Gaceta Oficial"; Cuba, "Gaceta Oficial"; Dominican Republic, "Gaceta Oficial"; El Salvador, "Diario Oficial"; Ecuador, "El Registro"; Guatemala, "Diario de Centro América"; Haiti, "Le Moniteur"; Honduras, "La Gaceta"; Mexico, "Diario Oficial"; Nicaragua, "La Gaceta"; Panama, "Gaceta Oficial"; Paraguay, "Gaceta Oficial"; Peru, "El Peruano"; Uruguay, "Diario Oficial"; and Venezuela, "Gaceta Oficial."

compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART VI

ARGENTINA

4l. December 27, 1941. Presidential Decree No. 107,457 prohibiting the exportation or reexportation of narcotic alkaloids with the exception of cocaine and its derivatives. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 2, 1942.)

4m. January 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 110,685 providing that the rentals for farm lands fixed by the Commission for the Readjustment of Agricultural Rentals (*Comisión de Reajuste de Arrendamientos Agrícolas*) shall remain in effect during the present emergency. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 30, 1942.)

4n. February 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 112,635-85 authorizing special hours for workers in the navy workshops for the duration of the present emergency. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 6, 1942.)

4o. February 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 112,397-86 providing for the repatriation of Argentine citizens residing in foreign countries. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 8, 1942.)

4p. February 19, 1942. Presidential Decree No.

113,587-38 extending the provisions of the decree on neutrality of September 4, 1939, to the state of war existing between Great Britain and Thailand. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 14, 1942.)

11. Presidential Decree No. 114,919. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 10, 1942.)

11a. March 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 115,246-50 arranging to supply the representatives of the Greek Government with 20,000 tons of wheat to be shipped to Greece for the use of its nationals. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 14, 1942.)

11b. March 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 115,632-186 approving the report of the Minister of Foreign Affairs, Dr. Enrique Ruiz Guiñazú, on the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics and his action in that Meeting. (*Boletín Oficial*, March 30, 1942.)

11c. March 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 116,855 providing that the distribution and sale of tires shall be subject to certain rules, to be supervised by the Commission for the Distribu-

tion of Rubber (*Comisión de Distribución del Caucho*). (See Argentina 12, as corrected below.) (*Boletín Oficial*, April 14, 1942.)

12. (Correction) March 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 116,856 creating the Commission for the Distribution of Rubber (*Comisión de Distribución del Caucho*) as a branch of the Committee for Exportation and Industrial and Commercial Promotion (*Comité de Exportación y de Estímulo Industrial y Comercial*) for the purpose of carrying out Presidential Decrees No. 114,919 of March 3, 1942, and No. 116,855 of March 26, 1942, (see Argentina 11, BULLETIN, July 1942, 11c above) by adopting any necessary measures for the control and supply of rubber, especially of automobile tires. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 13, 1942.)

15. (Correction) March 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 116,279. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 29, 1942.)

18. May 14, 1942. Resolution of the Ministry of Agriculture regulating the exportation and reexportation of drugs or medicines and raw materials used in the preparation of the latter. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, May 15, 1942.)

19. May 16, 1942. Presidential Decree prohibiting the exportation of airplanes or their spare parts and machines for airplane repair shops. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, May 17, 1942.)

BOLIVIA

4. April 10, 1942. Decree suspending the state of siege declared January 10, 1942. (*El Diario*, La Paz, April 11, 1942.)

5. April 13, 1942. Presidential Decree of "Security of the State," approving measures to safeguard the Nation, according to the recommendations of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics. (*El Diario*, La Paz, April 14, 1942.)

BRAZIL

26a. May 7, 1942. Government announcement that Hungary has severed diplomatic relations with Brazil. (*New York Times*, May 8, 1942.)

26b. May 7, 1942. Expulsion of the Nazi agent, Hans Henning von Cossel, Hitler's personal representative in Brazil, who was forced to sail for Lisbon. (*New York Herald Tribune*, May 8, 1942.)

26c. May 18, 1942. Presidential Decree authorizing the Minister of War to call all reserve officers to active service. (*New York Times*, May 19, 1942.)

28. May 23, 1942. Presidential Decree calling to active service all reserve officers of the Brazilian Air Force and placing civilian pilots on the Air Force's active reserve list. (*New York Herald Tribune*, May 24, 1942.)

29. May 28, 1942. Government Order instructing Brazilian coast guard patrols to fire on submarines belonging to Axis nations if found near the Brazilian coast. (*New York Times*, May 30, 1942.)

30. June ?, 1942. Decree-Law signed by the President prohibiting the exportation or reexportation of planes and parts and of aviation material in general. (Bulletin No. 26, Brazilian Press and Propaganda Bureau.)

CHILE

12. April 21, 1942. Resolution of the Chairman of the Petroleum Supply Committee and Director of Mines and Petroleum of the Ministry of Promotion setting forth the permanent gasoline rationing plan to go into effect May 1, 1942. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, April 22, 1942.)

13. April 21, 1942. Regulation of the General Subsistence Price Commissariat fixing the prices of tires and inner tubes. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, April 22, 1942.)

14. April 22, 1942. First meeting of the National Supply Board (*Junta Nacional de Abastecimiento*), created by a recent decree for the purpose of facilitating and regulating the acquisition of merchandise and raw materials of foreign origin and performing other activities related to the supply and distribution of commodities necessary for the industrial and commercial activities of the country. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, April 21 and 23, 1942.)

15. May 16, 1942. Decree of the Government creating the National Traffic Regulating Board (*Comisión Reguladora del Tránsito*) to draw up and enforce restrictions limiting the activities of motor vehicles in order to conserve tires and gasoline. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, May 17, 1942.)

COSTA RICA

30. (Correction) May 1, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 5 extending until June 30, 1942, the period set for citizens of friendly nations resident in Costa Rica to secure their certificates of residence. (*La Gaceta*, May 10, 1942.)

31. May 6, 1942. Legislative Resolution No. 1 suspending for a period of not more than sixty days, at the discretion of the Executive Power, the enjoyment and exercise of specified consti-

tutional guarantees throughout the nation in order to safeguard public order and maintain the security of the State. (*La Gaceta*, May 10, 1942.)

32. May 7, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 15 regulating the exploitation of rubber, ipecac, vanilla, balsam, liquidambar, and all types of vegetable products growing in national forests, or belonging to the State. Wood and gum or resin from the sapodilla and similar trees are excluded from the rulings, their exploitation to be handled according to special regulations now in effect. The maximum extension of any grant will be three hundred hectares, for a period of two years. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, May 12, 1942.)

33. May 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 8 breaking diplomatic relations between Costa Rica and Rumania and Hungary. (*La Gaceta*, May 22, 1942.)

34. May 21, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 18 prohibiting the importation and exportation of coin and bank notes originating in countries other than those of the Western Hemisphere, decreeing that the movement of coin and bank notes from the United States will be controlled by the Department of Emission of the National Bank of Costa Rica, regulating the remittance of drafts drawn on foreign countries and that of drafts and credits issued in a foreign country by either establishments or persons with residence in Costa Rica, and approving other measures regarding the exportation and importation of currency. (*La Gaceta*, May 22, 1942.)

35. May 25, 1942. Bulletin of the Export Control Board defining foreign exchange so as to avoid future difficulties in the application of Presidential Decree No. 18 of May 21, 1942 (see 34 above). By the term "foreign exchange" will be understood "every type of draft, check, letter of credit, money order, cabled order, and other instrument of any kind involving the transfer of funds or assets from any foreign country to Costa Rica and vice versa, whatever their source and origin may be, as well as bank notes and gold coin from other countries." (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, May 25, 1942.)

CUBA

165. May 15, 1942. Resolution of the Delegate of the Minister of Commerce establishing the basic formula for regulating gasoline prices in any part of the Republic (see Cuba 119, 124, 127, and 130, BULLETIN, July 1942) and stating the prices for different localities. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 29, 1942, p. 9496.)

166. May 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1498 extending for an additional period of thirty days the suspension of exportation of live cattle and refrigerated meats. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 3, 1942, p. 9816.)

167. May 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1511 providing for the emission of 6,916,000 pesos in silver certificates in view of the fact that the prevailing general situation demands an increase in Cuban currency. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 3, 1942, p. 9879.)

168. May 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1574 providing for an additional increase in Cuban money of three million eighty-four thousand pesos in paper currency owing to conditions resulting from the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 15, 1942, p. 10,615.)

169. May 29, 1942. Resolution of the Board of Directors of the Price Regulation and Supply Office (*Consejo de Dirección de la Oficina de Regulación de Precios y Abastecimiento*), putting into effect Presidential Decree No. 1366 of May 13, 1942 (see Cuba 159, BULLETIN, August 1942), and providing that from June 1, 1942, the functions related to the rationing of gasoline and other fuel oils formerly exercised by the Delegate of the Minister of Commerce shall be under the exclusive control of the member of the Board of Directors of the Price Regulation and Supply Office designated for this purpose. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 2, 1942, p. 9787.)

170. May 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1503 adopting the necessary measures to house and equip the Price Regulation and Supply Office (*Oficina de Regulación de Precios y Abastecimiento*) created by Presidential Decree No. 1366 of May 13, 1942 (see Cuba 159, BULLETIN, August 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 3, 1942, p. 9816.)

171. May 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1510 granting, because of the present war, the free use of the Cuban telegraph lines for messages sent from the offices of the national telegraph system by officers or special agents of the United States Government to the Departments of War, Navy, and Air (*sic*) in Washington or to any other official agency of that country as well as for those originating in the aforementioned departments, agencies, or the Naval and Air Bases in the Caribbean and addressed to American officers, officials, and special agents in Cuba, provided such messages are transferred by the cable companies to the Cuban National Telegraph Service. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 3, 1942, p. 9881.)

172. June 6, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, transferring to the Price Regulation and Supply Office all administrative services relative to the trade, distribution, and consumption of iron and steel materials specified in Decrees 858 of March 27, 1942 and 1324 of April 28, 1942 (see Cuba 108 and 151, BULLETIN, June and August 1942, respectively). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 9, 1942, p. 10,169.)

173. June 6, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Commerce, transferring to the Price Regulation and Supply Office administrative services relative to the price regulation and supply of livestock and meat. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 17, 1942, p. 10,169.)

174. June 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1599 ordering the expulsion from national territory to his native land of the undesirable Japanese subject, Santiago O'Heijiro Tanaka, for a crime committed against the Republic. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 17, 1942, p. 10,744.)

175. June 16, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1575 authorizing the Minister of Communications to issue two series of stamps with allegoric drawings and suitable captions, one showing the dangers of insidious propaganda and pernicious activities and the second picturing the advantages of human liberties. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 16, 1942, p. 10,647.)

176. June 16, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1576 authorizing the Anti-Fascist National Front to export from Habana to Russia various articles collected by Cuban democratic organizations and labor unions as a friendly gift to the fighting forces of that country. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 16, 1942, p. 10,679.)

177. June 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1692 amending various articles of Decree No. 1366 of May 13, 1942 (see Cuba 159, BULLETIN, August 1942) in order to simplify the functioning of the Price Regulation and Supply Office. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 22, 1942, p. 11,064.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

30. May 14, 1942. Law No. 734 reorganizing the National Committee on Foods (*Comité Nacional de Alimentos*) by amending Law No. 152 of September 13, 1939, and authorizing the Executive Power to appoint the members of said committee whose duties will be to supervise the importation, exportation, and movement of articles of prime necessity, fix their maximum prices, and adopt all other measures tending to avoid shortage, hoarding, or rise in price of said articles. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1942.)

31. May 14, 1942. Law No. 737 prohibiting the exportation of rice without a special permit. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1942.)

32. May 15, 1942. Resolution No. 1 of the National Commission of Transportation and Petroleum Control (*Comisión Nacional de Transporte y Control del Petróleo*) further restricting the use of gasoline for the period May 16-25, 1942. (*La Opinión*, Ciudad Trujillo, May 15, 1942.)

33. May 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1679 reorganizing the National Committee on Foods (*Comité Nacional de Alimentos*) (see 30 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1942.)

34. May 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 3 changing the working hours of public offices in order to obtain the greatest amount of work possible. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1942.)

35. May 18, 1942. Executive Decree No. 6 creating and organizing the Office of Rice Control. This decree replaces Executive Decree No. 1675 of May 12, 1942 (see Dominican Republic 27, BULLETIN, August 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 20, 1942.)

36. May 23, 1942. Executive Decree No. 20 creating a Commission for the Importation and Exportation of Metals (*Comisión de Importación y Exportación de Metales*) and naming its members. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 27, 1942.)

37. May 26, 1942. Resolution No. 2 of the National Commission of Transportation and Petroleum Control (*Comisión Nacional de Transporte y Control del Petróleo*) extending the provisions of Resolution No. 1 (see 32 above) until May 31, 1942. (*La Opinión*, Ciudad Trujillo, May 26 1942.)

38. June 3, 1942. Executive Decree No. 57 placing the importation, distribution, and warehousing of wheat flour under Government control. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 6, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

18a. March 25, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 30 revising the Central American Import Tariff established March 26, 1941, to conform with the difficulties the present emergency has created in the importation of certain building materials (especially wood). (*Diario Oficial*, April 8, 1942.)

24. May 14, 1942. Notice by the Committee on Economic Coordination of the rules and regulations regarding the rationing of Diesel oil (to go into effect May 16) and of gasoline (to go into effect June 1). (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, May 15, 1942.)

25. May 26, 1942. Note sent to the Director General of Police by the Minister of Government stating that all foreigners will be required to show their residence cards in order to travel by train or bus or to transport merchandise; Germans, Italians, and Japanese will need special permits from the Director General of Police before tickets will be issued to them. The above-mentioned regulations were to go into effect 10 days after their publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, May 29, 1942.)

HAITI

43. May 16, 1942. Executive Decree granting the Government the power, should it be in the interests of national defense, to requisition real estate or personal property belonging to any persons resident in Haiti, whether nationals or foreigners, or to the State. (*Le Matin*, Port-au-Prince, May 20, 1942.)

HONDURAS

12. May 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 46 providing for the appointment of fiscal controllers to administer German, Italian, or Japanese commercial, industrial, and agricultural enterprises left without managers or proprietors owing to measures adopted by the Executive Power as a result of the state of war existing between Honduras and the Axis powers, said Fiscal Controllers to be appointed by and under the jurisdiction of the Department of the Treasury, Public Credit, and Commerce. All employees of such enterprises who are nationals of enemy nations are to be replaced by Hondurans. (*La Gaceta*, May 18, 1942.)

MEXICO

12a. January 13, 1942. Presidential Decree prohibiting the exportation of dyestuffs. Effective three days after publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, June 29, 1942.)

33a. May 7, 1942. Executive Order prohibiting the sending of telegrams between private individuals mentioning the dates of arrivals and departures of vessels. (*Diario Oficial*, June 3, 1942.)

36a. May 25, 1942. Executive Order placing the ex-fortress of Perote under the exclusive control of the Department of the Interior (*Secretaría de Gobernación*). (*Diario Oficial*, June 5, 1942.)

36b. May 26, 1942. Presidential Decree regulating the import duty on material used in omnibus assembly. (*Diario Oficial*, June 6, 1942.)

37a. May 30, 1942. Executive Order providing for the disposition of articles subject to the export quota in the United States which were

imported with or without certificates of necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, June 16, 1942.)

41. June 9, 1942. Circular No. 301-9-83 listing the products requiring certificates of necessity in accordance with the regulations of February 3, 1942 (see Mexico 16, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, June 15, 1942.)

42. June 9, 1942. Circular 301-10-84 setting forth instructions regarding imports requiring certificates of necessity under the regulations of February 3, 1942 (see Mexico 16, BULLETIN, May 1942 and 41 above). (*Diario Oficial*, June 15, 1942.)

43. June 11, 1942. Law setting forth general dispositions relative to the suspension of individual guarantees as provided for by a Decree of June 1, 1942 (see Mexico 39, BULLETIN, August 1942). Effective immediately upon publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, June 13, 1942.)

44. June 11, 1942. Law regarding enemy property and business, prohibiting, except when special permission is granted by the Executive, any business transactions between Mexicans and residents of countries at war with Mexico or with nationals of enemy countries. Effective immediately upon publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, June 13, 1942.)

45. June 11, 1942. Regulations issued to carry out the provisions of the law regarding enemy property and business (see 44 above) and creating an Administration and Vigilance Board (*Junta de Administración y Vigilancia*) to execute said provisions. Effective immediately upon publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, June 13, 1942.)

46. June 11, 1942. Publication of a list of persons included under the prohibitions of the law regarding enemy property and business (see 44 and 45 above). (*Diario Oficial*, June 13, 1942.)

47. June 15, 1942. Announcement of Mexico's formal adherence to the Declaration by United Nations of January 1, 1942 (see Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 1, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*El Universal*, Mexico, June 15, 1942.)

48. June 18, 1942. Decree declaring the Huatabampo-Navojoa-Nogales and Mazatlán-Navajoa telephone lines to be vital to national and continental defense and taking them over for the exclusive service of the general headquarters of the Pacific Military Zone. (*Diario Oficial*, June 25, 1942.)

49. June 19, 1942. Presidential Decree raising the category of the Telecommunications Bureau. (*Diario Oficial*, June 22, 1942.)

50. June 20, 1942. Presidential Decree providing that the 5 percent advance deposit required on the invoice value of all imported goods shall apply only to shippers residing on the American Continent. Effective three days after publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, June 27, 1942.)

NICARAGUA

18. May 2, 1942. Order of the Price and Trade Control Board ordering the registration of all motor vehicles as a preliminary to gasoline and tire rationing. Registration was to start May 5, 1942. (*La Prensa*, Managua, May 3, 1942.)

19. May 13, 1942. Announcement by the Price and Trade Control Board that all registrations for gasoline and oil must be completed by May 16, 1942. (*La Prensa*, Managua, May 14, 1942.)

PANAMA

16. May 19, 1942. Decree-Law No. 35 prescribing measures relative to the importation and sale of tires, inner tubes, and materials for their repair. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 21, 1942.)

PARAGUAY

9. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 5, 1942.)

11. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 7, 1942.)

13. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1942.)

15. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1942.)

15a. March 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 11,513 requiring manufacturers of coconut oil and industrial fat to supply the needs of soap industries and prohibiting the exportation of whole coconuts or their meat without a permit from the General Office of Industry and Commerce. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 12, 1942.)

PERU

14. June 1, 1942. Presidential Decree subjecting to control, for the duration of the present war, the importation of machinery for the manufacture of textiles, hats, shoes, and leather articles in general. (*El Peruano*, June 4, 1942.)

15. June 2, 1942. Ministerial Resolution designed to terminate the sale of articles of clandestine origin, trade in which has caused the scarcity of essential articles and their resulting rise in price. (*El Peruano*, June 4, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

139a. May 29, 1942. Executive Order No. 9176 transferring the administration of the Act of

June 8, 1938 (52 Stat. 631), as amended by the Act of August 7, 1939 (53 Stat. 1244), requiring the registration of agents of foreign principals, from the Secretary of State to the Attorney General. (*Federal Register*, June 2, 1942.)

139b. May 30, 1942. Executive Order No. 9177 extending to the Reconstruction Finance Corporation and its subsidiaries, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Departments of War and Agriculture the authority, hitherto held only by the Secretary of the Navy, to make emergency purchases of war materials abroad and import them free of duty during the emergency. (*Federal Register*, June 3, 1942.)

139c. May 30, 1942. Executive Order No. 9178 authorizing the Secretary of the Interior to acquire and dispose of property deemed necessary for military, naval, or other war purposes in connection with the helium development and production program of the Department of the Interior. (*Federal Register*, June 3, 1942.)

143. June 5, 1942. Public Law 572 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution making an additional appropriation of \$210,000,000 for the marine and war-risk insurance fund.

144. June 5, 1942. Public Law 580 (77th Congress) providing for sundry matters affecting the Military Establishment.

145. June 5, 1942. Public Law 585 (77th Congress) transferring from the Secretary of the Interior to the Secretary of War jurisdiction over certain lands within the Petersburg National Military Park, to be administered for military purposes.

146. June 5, 1942. Public Law 586 (77th Congress) authorizing the lease or sale by the Secretary of the Interior of public lands for use in connection with the manufacture of arms, ammunition, and implements of war.

147. June 5, 1942. Executive Order No. 9179 authorizing the Commissioner of Public Roads, Federal Works Agency, to acquire and dispose of property deemed necessary for military, naval, or other war purposes. (*Federal Register*, June 9, 1942.)

148. June 5, 1942. Executive Order No. 9180 authorizing the Secretary of the Interior to enter into contracts for the disposal of yucca growing on the public domain in order to expedite the prosecution of the war effort. (*Federal Register*, June 9, 1942.)

149. June 10, 1942. Public Law 602 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution authorizing the Secre-

tary of Agriculture to provide Federal meat inspection during the present war emergency in respect of meat-packing establishments engaged in intrastate commerce only, in order to facilitate the purchase of meat and meat food products by Federal agencies.

150. June 11, 1942. Public Law 603 (77th Congress) providing measures to mobilize the productive facilities of small business in the interests of successful prosecution of the war.

151. June 11, 1942. Public Law 604 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution designating June 13, 1942 as MacArthur Day.

152. June 11, 1942. Executive Order No. 9181 setting forth regulations for the administration of the Federal Government services in Alaska, said regulations to continue in force so long as title I of the First War Powers Act, 1941 (see United States 17, BULLETIN, April 1942) remains in force. (*Federal Register*, June 16, 1942.)

153. June 12, 1942. Announcement of the adoption by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation, pursuant to Public Law 603 (see 153 above), of a program to increase further the production of strategic and critical minerals by making loans not to exceed \$5,000 to any one borrower for the purpose of financing the underwatering, retimbering, making accessible, or other preliminary development of mine workings when such loans are deemed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to be advantageous to the national defense. (Release RFC-1622, United States Secretary of Commerce, June 12, 1942.)

154. June 12, 1942. Announcement that the Reconstruction Finance Corporation will finance the construction of the proposed 24-inch pipe-line from the vicinity of Longview, Texas to that of Salem, Illinois. (Release RFC-1623, United States Secretary of Commerce, June 12, 1942.)

155. June 12, 1942. Agreement of the Rubber Reserve Company to purchase all scrap rubber collected by the oil companies except battery boxes and tire beads. (Release RFC-1624, United States Secretary of Commerce, June 12, 1942.)

156. June 13, 1942. Executive Order No. 9182 consolidating certain war information functions into an Office of War Information. (*Federal Register*, June 16, 1942.)

157. June 13, 1942. Military Order creating the Office of Strategic Services to replace the Office of Coordinator of Information (exclusive of foreign information activities transferred to the Office of

War Information, see 159 above) under the jurisdiction of the United States Joint Chiefs of Staff. (*Federal Register*, June 16, 1942.)

158. June 15, 1942. Executive Order No. 9183 changing the name of the Defense Communications Board to Board of War Communications. (*Federal Register*, June 17, 1942.)

159. June 16, 1942. Public Law 607 (77th Congress). Pay Readjustment Act of 1942 readjusting the pay and allowances of personnel of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, Coast Guard, Coast and Geodetic Survey, and Public Health Service.

160. June 16, 1942. Public Law 609 (77th Congress) amending the Act of July 1, 1940 (Public, Numbered 700, 76th Congress) relating to preventing the publication of inventions in the national interest by providing that it remain in force during the time the United States is at war.

161. June 16, 1942. Public Law 610 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution extending certain specified emergency laws relating to the merchant marine.

162. June 16, 1942. Public Law 612 (77th Congress) authorizing the President of the United States to acquire or construct naval aircraft as may be necessary to provide and maintain the number of useful lighter-than-air craft at a total of two hundred.

163. June 19, 1942. Public Law 616 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution making an additional appropriation for the fiscal year 1942 for the training and education of defense workers.

164. June 22, 1942. Public Law 620 (77th Congress) facilitating the employment by defense contractors of certain former members of the land and naval forces, including the Coast Guard, of the United States.

165. June 23, 1942. Public Law 625 (77th Congress). Servicemen's Dependents Allowance Act of 1942 providing family allowances for the dependents of enlisted men in the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard of the United States.

166. June 25, 1942. Public Law 627 (77th Congress) forbidding the making of photographs and sketches of military or naval reservations, naval vessels, and other naval and military properties except in the interests of national defense.

167. June 27, 1942. Public Law 635 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution according privileges of free importation to members of the armed forces of other United Nations, to enemy prisoners of war, and civilian internees and detainees.

168. June 27, 1942. Executive Order No. 9186 authorizing the Federal Works Administrator to acquire and dispose of property deemed necessary for military, naval, or other war purposes and revoking Executive Order No. 9179 of June 5, 1942 (see 150 above). (*Federal Register*, July 1, 1942.)

169. June 30, 1942. Public Law 638 (77th Congress) amending the Act of July 2, 1940 (54 Stat. 714) to further expedite the prosecution of the war by authorizing the control of the exportation of certain commodities.

170. June 30, 1942. Public Law 639 (77th Congress) providing for the better administration of officer personnel of the Navy and Marine Corps during the existing war.

171. June 30, 1942. Executive Order No. 9187 transferring certain personnel from the Coast and Geodetic Survey to the War and Navy Departments. (*Federal Register*, July 3, 1942.)

172. June 30, 1942. Executive Order No. 9188 suspending for the duration of the war compliance with specified sections of the Naval Appropriation Act, 1943 (Public No. 441, 77th Congress, see United States 47, BULLETIN, April 1942) and the War Department Civil Appropriation Act, 1943 (Public No. 527, 77th Congress) relating to certain kinds of employment in the Canal Zone. (*Federal Register*, July 4, 1942.)

173. July 2, 1942. Public Law 643 (77th Congress) amending Public Law 703 (76th Congress) of July 2, 1940 by authorizing the President to requisition and take over certain articles or materials whenever he shall determine such action to be in the interest of national defense or the prosecution of the war.

174. July 2, 1942. Public Law 646 (77th Congress) amending the Defense Highway Act of 1941 (Public Law 295, 77th Congress).

175. July 2, 1942. Public Law 649 (77th Congress). Military Appropriation Act, 1943, making appropriations for the Military Establishment for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1943.

176. July 2, 1942. Public Law 650 (77th Congress) making appropriations to provide war housing and war public works in and near the District of Columbia, pursuant to Public Law 522 (77th Congress) of April 10, 1942 (see United States 101, BULLETIN, July 1942).

177. July 2, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2561 denying certain enemies access to the courts of the United States. (*Federal Register*, July 7, 1942.)

178. July 2, 1942. Executive Order No. 9189 suspending for the duration of the war certain statutory provisions of the Military Appropriation Act, 1943 (Public Law 649, 77th Congress, see 175 above) relating to employment in the Canal Zone. (*Federal Register*, July 7, 1942.)

179. July 2, 1942. Appointment by the President of a Military Commission to try certain specified persons for offenses against the law of war and the Articles of War. (*Federal Register*, July 7, 1942.)

URUGUAY

13a. March 12, 1942. Presidential Decree providing for a system to prevent any communications deemed inadvisable or out of harmony with American interests, in accordance with the recommendations of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs. (*Diario Oficial*, April 24, 1942.)

13b. March 12, 1942. Presidential Decree appointing a Commission charged with formulating rules and regulations as regards administrative procedure so as to obtain the required authorization to import from the United States. (*Diario Oficial*, April 24, 1942.)

24a. April 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1454 appointing a Commission to study the need of supplying the Army and the civilian population with gas masks. (*Diario Oficial*, May 14, 1942.)

29. April 14, 1942. Executive Resolution No. 1595 suspending for fifteen days publication of the newspaper *El Riverista*, published in the city of Rivera, because said newspaper printed an article calling certain measures adopted by the Brazilian Government relative to the present European conflagration "looting," and implying other offenses on the part of Brazil. (*Diario Oficial*, April 24, 1942.)

30. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 180/942 prohibiting the exportation over the land frontier of animals of the equine species, with the exception of race horses and polo ponies, because, due to the present situation, it is necessary to extend the use of animal traction. (*Diario Oficial*, April 24, 1942.)

31. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 410/942 adding rubber and rubber products to the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, May 8, 1942.)

32. April 17, 1942. Decree-Law No. 1643/939 amending Law No. 9,542 so as to make it possible to effect rush purchases without bids. (*Diario Oficial*, April 25, 1942.)

33. April 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 470/941 suspending certain provisions regarding the shipment of cotton yarns. (*Diario Oficial*, April 25, 1942.)

34. April 17, 1942. Executive Resolution amending a specified ruling for vehicles with metallic rims by fixing a maximum load for those operating on public roads. (*Diario Oficial*, April 25, 1942.)

35. April 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 676/A/941 establishing a tax on livestock for export, excluding that slaughtered by jerked beef manufacturers. (*Diario Oficial*, May 5, 1942.)

36. April 20, 1942. Decree-Law No. 1456 making an exception regarding required military instruction. (*Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1942.)

37. April 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1487 approving the regulations designed to assure that airplanes imported from the United States are destined for purposes of national defense, as well as the measures concerning the proper control of said airplanes by competent authorities. (*Diario Oficial*, May 9, 1942.)

38. April 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1490 appointing a Commission to study the protection and security of military centers of major importance. (*Diario Oficial*, May 14, 1942.)

39. April 24, 1942. Executive Resolution No. 411/942 appointing the President of the National Subsistence Commission to arrange for a contract with the Alcohol and Sugar Institute of Brazil relative to supplying Uruguay with sugar. (*Diario Oficial*, May 2, 1942.)

40. April 24, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 494/942 adopting special measures to prevent the aggravation of the liquid fuel and coal problem. (*Diario Oficial*, May 4, 1942.)

41. April 30, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 373/940 approving, with the amendment of a specified article, the rules and regulations proposed by the Honorary Commission for Exports and Imports. (*Diario Oficial*, May 15, 1942.)

42. May 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 419/942 prohibiting the exportation of rubber and all rubber products and fixing the procedure for exceptions. (*Diario Oficial*, May 11, 1942.)

43. May 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 536/942 prohibiting the exportation of petroleum lubricants except to supply boats. (*Diario Oficial*, May 11, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

8a. March 17, 1942. Announcement by the United States Secretary of Commerce of agreements between the Defense Plant Corporation and Metals Reserve Company and the Freeport Sulphur Company whereby \$20,000,000 will be made available for the production of nickel in Cuba. (Release RFC-1587, United States Department of Commerce, March 18, 1942.)

16a. May 13, 1942. Brazilian-Paraguayan banking agreement whereby the Brazilian Government grants that of Paraguay a loan of one hundred thousand contos de réis to be invested in an economic and financial program and in public works which will be executed by Paraguay in six years. (Bulletin No. 26, Brazilian Press and Propaganda Bureau.)

21. June 16, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Belgium, made under the provisions of the Lease-Lend Act of March 11, 1941, on the principles applying to mutual aid in the prosecution of the war and cooperation in the settlement of post-war problems. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, June 20, 1942.)

22. June 16, 1942. Agreement with the Republic of Costa Rica announced jointly by the Rubber Reserve Company, the Department of State, and the Board of Economic Warfare of the United States, under the terms of which the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase within the next five years all rubber produced in Costa Rica that is not required for essential needs there. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, June 20, 1942.)

23. June 18, 1942. Agreement signed between the United States and Cuba whereby the Cuban Government offers facilities to the United States War Department for training aviation personnel and for operations against enemy underseacraft. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, June 20, 1942.)

NECROLOGY

GENERAL TEÓFILO A. IGLESIAS.—Peruvian statesman and soldier. In 1906 was graduated from the Peruvian Military Academy, where he had at one time been Chief of Cadets. Served his country in various capacities including those of Chief of Staff of the Peruvian Army, Minister of Finance and Commerce, Minister of War. In 1940 resigned his post as assistant director of the Peruvian War College and came to the United States for medical treatment. Died at the age of 54 years in Washington on April 29, 1942.

VICENTE VITA.—Nicaraguan economist, banker, and diplomat. Director and Treasurer of the National Bank and of the National Railways of Nicaragua. Member of the Exchange Control Board of the Mortgage Bank; vice president of the Inter-American Board for Commercial Arbitration; Secretary of the Nicaraguan Legation in the United States. Director of other organizations and author of various works on political economy. Died at the age of 43 years at Managua, April 20, 1942.

ANTONIO JOSÉ URIBE.—Colombian lawyer, professor, and public man. Twice Minister of Foreign Relations and member

of the Advisory Commission of the Ministry of Foreign Relations, effectively mediating the solution of difficult international problems. Was Minister of Public Instruction, President of the Senate and also of the Chamber of Representatives, as well as Minister Plenipotentiary to various countries. Professor of the history of Castilian literature in the University of Antioquia; professor of public and private international law, civil and mercantile law, and political economy in the University of Colombia. Rector and reformer of the Law School, and well-known historian, economist, compiler and editor of documents important in Colombian history. Member of the Permanent Court of Arbitration of the Hague since 1927. Member of such organizations as the Academia Nacional de Historia, Sociedad Geográfica de Colombia, Academia de Jurisprudencia, Academia Colombiana de la Lengua, Instituto Americano de Derecho Internacional, Sociedad Colombiana de Derecho Internacional, Sociedad Colombiana de Ciencias Naturales, Académie Diplomatique Internationale, Paris, and corresponding member of many similar foreign academies. Died at the age of 69 years at Bogotá, March 9, 1942.

ERRATUM

Footnote 1 to the Spanish article, "La Aviación y los Corrales," which appeared on page 455 of the BULLETIN for August 1942, should read as follows: "Emilio Carranza pereció en el año de 1928 cuando su avión cayó en las sierras del Estado de New Jersey. Había venido a los Estados Unidos en vuelo de buena voluntad."



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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.

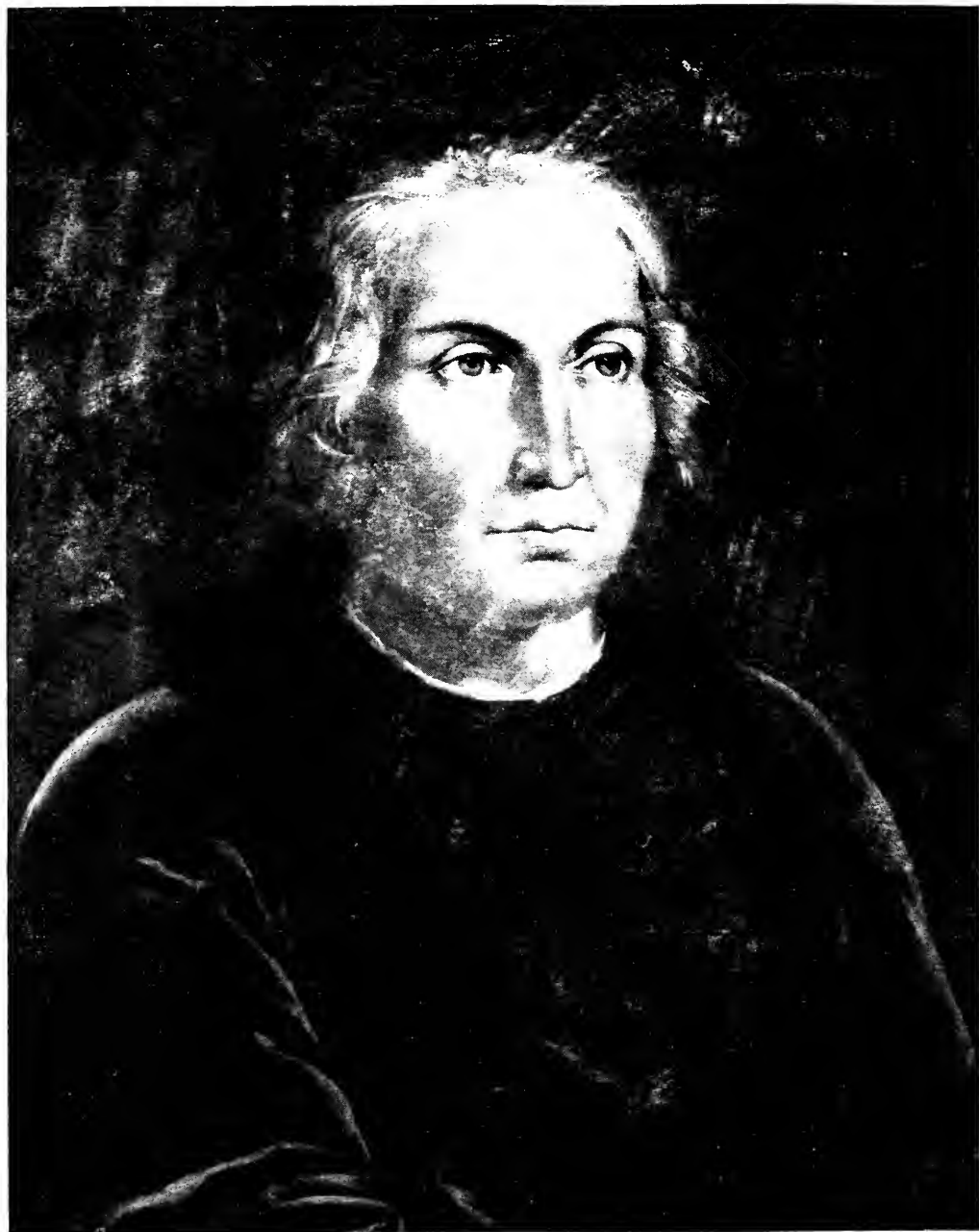


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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: XOCHIPILLI, THE AZTEC GOD OF FLOWERS, IN
THE GARDEN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION





CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS

This portrait, painted in the nineteenth century for the Naval Museum at Madrid, follows closely the descriptions of Columbus given by his contemporaries. No clearly authenticated portrait of the Discoverer exists.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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Columbus and America

Foreword

L. S. ROWE

Director General, Pan American Union

EVEN in normal times the commemoration of the four hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the discovery of America would be an event of major importance. The celebration this year, because of the world conflict now raging and also by reason of the fact that the new world is called upon to play an important part both in the winning of the war and in the solution of the post war problems, acquires a new and deeper significance.

The new world which Columbus discovered meant something far more important than the addition of physical territory to western civilization. It meant a new world in which ideas of far-reaching political and social significance were destined profoundly to influence the institutions of the occident.

On this vast continent people from all parts of the earth came to live, conquer

nature and work out a new civilization of free men, based on democracy and dedicated to good will, peace, and fellowship. The sublime spirit of liberty and courage that impelled the Discoverer to defy the dangers of the unknown brought in its wake the daring and endurance of those hardy pioneers of all races and creeds whose children enjoy today the priceless heritage bequeathed to them by their forebears and are firmly resolved to preserve it.

Through all their toil and suffering, their joys and aspirations, these men and women were upheld by a new vision and a new faith. Through them the soul of humanity advanced far on the way to freedom. Thanks to them the pure light of freedom shines today in America as a token of hope to countless thousands held in bondage in other lands.

And so, from that very first hour, on that wonderful morning of October 12, 1492, when Columbus first saw land, America was destined to emerge as the continent of peace and hope.

In commemoration of the Discovery of America and in homage to the Great Navigator Christopher Columbus, the Pan

American Union dedicates this issue of the BULLETIN. May the memory of that great event imbue us with courage in the present critical hour and inspire us with the vision, hope and perseverance necessary for America's part in the stupendous task of rebuilding our world on the principles of peace, liberty, and solidarity.



THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS

A panel of the frieze by Sally James Farnham in the Governing Board room of the Pan American Union.

The Earliest Colonial Policy Toward America: That of Columbus

SAMUEL ELIOT MORISON

Professor of History, Harvard University; Lieutenant Commander, U. S. N. R.

THE COLONIZATION of America did not seem an essentially new problem to Europeans in the late fifteenth century. Familiar patterns and long-tried methods were applied to bring the New World under European subjection, until hard American facts forced a change. Colonization, we must remember, is merely one form of conquest, and conquest is one of the oldest and most respectable of Euro-asiatic folkways, which the ancestors of our Indians had practiced in the New World for several millennia before the first conquistador appeared from Castile. Even the Taino people of the Antilles, whom Columbus reported to be gentle, peaceable, and defenseless, had conquered the Bahamas and most of Cuba from the more primitive Siboney during the fifteenth century, and were themselves being raided by the Carib.

Colonization, as the word is used in American history, means that form of conquest in which some portion of a people or nation takes possession of a territory at considerable distance from the mother country, and after the conquest remains in close political connection and dependence on the mother country. A colonial empire is a collection of such colonies. *Colony* and *empire*, both the words and the things, are of Roman origin, and the Spanish Empire, as it developed in the sixteenth century, bears a marked resemblance to the Roman. But the precedent does not seem to have been perceived by Columbus and his contemporaries. I have not noted a single

instance of these words being used by Spanish writers of the sixteenth century. Oviedo and Las Casas always refer to Spain as a *regnum* or *reino*, not as *imperio*, and her colonies to them are *Las Indias* or *Novus Mundus*. The word *colony* in its modern sense is found in Richard Eden's translation (1555) of Peter Martyr's *Decades*, but Martyr himself did not use the word *colonia*, and the English commonly used the term *plantations* for their empire, until well into the eighteenth century.¹

Words are not necessarily conclusive; but in this case the absence of the two Roman words strongly suggests that Roman precedents were not consciously followed by Spain. No wonder, for no European nation in the Middle Ages had acquired a colonial empire—although Byzantium inherited one, and lost it. The conquests of the Middle Ages were either incorporated in the territory of the conquering power, after passing through some such temporary status as a mark, or became immediately independent of the country whence the conquerors came, as in the case of Normandy and Sicily. None of the overseas conquests of the Northmen maintained any political connection with Scandinavia, although individuals in Iceland and Greenland might still regard themselves as subjects of the king of Norway.

Portugal and Castile began to expand overseas early in the fifteenth century, and by the time Columbus sailed, each had made the beginning of a colonial empire. Castile

in 1492 was completing the conquest and colonization of the Canary Islands, which had begun as early as 1410. The Portuguese between 1439 and 1460 took possession of three groups of uninhabited islands far out in the Western Ocean, the Azores, the Madeiras, and Cape Verdes, granted them to feudal proprietors called hereditary captains who brought in settlers, allotted land on their own terms, governed and taxed the people by virtue of a *carta da doação*, or a letter of donation, from the king. Columbus was familiar with at least two of these groups of islands. He lived for some time in Porto Santo and Madeira. His father-in-law was the captain of the former island, and a brother-in-law was captain of Graciosa in the Azores. From them, probably, he conceived the ambition of becoming governor and viceroy of whatever uninhabited islands, or lands peopled with submissive and tractable natives, that he might discover. The general resemblance of Columbus's contract or "Capitulations" with Ferdinand and Isabella to a *carta da doação* issued by the king of Portugal to one Fernão Dulmo, has already been noticed.² And there is a striking similarity between the first English colonial proprietary patent, issued by Henry VII to an Anglo-Portuguese syndicate in 1501, and a *carta da doação* that one of its members, João Fernandes *lavrador*, had already obtained from D. Manuel of Portugal.³

Yet the main ideas of Columbus on colonization were not derived from these Atlantic islands. He was inspired rather by the trading empire which the Portuguese had been establishing along the West African coast for half a century. Of that he had first-hand knowledge. In Africa the Portuguese sought not to colonize, but to trade; and experience proved that the West African trade could best be conducted between a staple town in Portugal (at first Lagos, later Lisbon), and

garrisoned trading stations—"factories" as they were called in English, *fondacas* in Italian. The most important of these Portuguese factories was at the fort of São Jorge da Mina on the Gold Coast, established by Diogo d'Azambuja at the command of the king of Portugal in 1482. Columbus either took part in d'Azambuja's expedition, or, as is more likely, made a voyage thither on a Portuguese ship a year or two later. He was certainly well acquainted with Portuguese West Africa, for numerous data in his Journal of the First Voyage to America show that Guinea, as he called West Africa, was his frame of reference. And there is good reason to believe that the four basic colonial policies and procedures which Columbus pursued in America were derived from the policy and practice of the Portuguese toward their trading empire in West Africa.

First and most important was this trading empire concept. Columbus conceived of empire in terms of a regulated government trade between a designated staple town in the mother country and a chain of fortified and garrisoned factories, which would serve as a center of exchange with the natives and as storage places for commodities between fleet sailings. In the letter that he wrote to the Sovereigns from Seville about April 10, 1493, immediately after his return from the First Voyage,⁴ he proposed to establish three or four towns in Hispaniola as centers of gold gathering, to confine shipping to one or more ports on this island, and to make Cádiz the staple town for the colonial trade in Castile. With the change from Cádiz to Seville, and the addition of other ports of entry on the mainland, such as Vera Cruz, Porto Bello, and Cartagena, this suggestion of Columbus became a basic principle of the Spanish colonial policy, one that was never departed from until the very end of the colonial regime. But

the addition of mining and agricultural colonies to the trading factories gave the Spanish empire as early as 1500 a very different complexion from the Portuguese empire in Africa and India.

The second colonial principle that Columbus learned from the Portuguese was exclusiveness. Portugal from the first had attempted to preëempt the trade of the West African coast for herself. A series of papal bulls gave her exclusive jurisdiction over that coast "up to the Indians,"⁵ and interlopers were roughly handled. A war had been fought with Castile over this very question; and at the conclusion of it, in the Treaty of Alcáçovas (1481), Castile recognized the exclusive rights of Portugal along the West Africa coast. This treaty, confirmed by the papal bull *Aeterni Regis*, was respected by the Sovereigns of Castile in their instructions to Columbus for his First Voyage. He was ordered not to visit the Guinea Coast. Castile simply followed the same exclusive policy as Portugal, when her fleets discovered something sufficiently valuable to keep for her own people.

One sentence in Columbus's Journal suggests that he at first thought of a more liberal policy. Writing at Baracoa in Cuba on November 27, 1492, he says,

Your Highnesses ought not to consent that any foreigner do business or set foot here, except Christian Catholics, since this was the end and the beginning of the enterprise, that it should be for the enhancement and glory of the Christian religion, nor should anyone who is not a good Christian come to these parts.⁶

Columbus evidently meant to admit his own countrymen and other Christian Europeans to the trade. But he was overruled at Barcelona, and Columbus furnished the information on which Ferdinand and Isabella obtained the papal bulls of 1493 giving them exclusive jurisdiction over the new discoveries. Charles V later invited his German and Italian subjects to carry

on trade with the Indies, but Ferdinand and Isabella confined it strictly to Castilians.

Conversion of the natives to Christianity, as a colonial policy, may have come directly to Columbus as a religious inspiration; but he had already seen it practiced by the Portuguese in Africa. Azurara, the chronicler of Guinea, is loud in his praise of the conversions effected by D. Henrique, both in Africa itself and on natives brought to Portugal as slaves.⁷ By 1481 a considerable number of Negro chiefs had embraced the faith, and the possibilities of São Jorge da Mina as a center for the spreading of Christianity were so promising that Pope Sixtus IV conceded a full indulgence for their sins to all Christians who might die there.⁸

Columbus had conversion of the heathen very much at heart. His allusions to conversion are so frequent, and his efforts in that direction so unwearied, as to leave no doubt of his sincerity. If he took no priest on his First Voyage, neither did the Portuguese on their voyages of discovery, because a voyage of discovery or exploration offered no opportunity for conversion. In the letter of April 10, 1493, Columbus requests that sufficient priests be sent out on his second and colonizing voyage "for the administration of the sacraments and for divine worship and the conversion of the Indians." The very meagre results from Fr. Buil and the other *religiosos* who accompanied him to Hispaniola in 1493 were a constant source of grief to Columbus, and frequent efforts were made by him, even in his last will and testament, to step up the work of conversion. The Spaniards later made great improvements in conversion technique, and brought practically the whole of the native population of the mainland within the fold of the Church. But when we come to the English colonies in Virginia and



STATUE IN HABANA

New England we find the same disparity between pious intention and practical results that prevailed in fifteenth century Hispaniola.

The slave trade as a colonial practice was closely connected with conversion as a colonial policy; the iniquities of the one were excused by the opportunities it afforded for the other, and the heathen were deemed lucky to exchange freedom for their souls' salvation. Slaves had been one of the most valuable products of Portugal's trading empire. They were obtained not only directly, but by purchase from friendly native potentates, who themselves had obtained the slaves by warfare, raids or barter. Columbus never authorized slaving raids on the friendly Arawak,

although they were made in his time, notably by Alonso de Hojeda. But he considered it natural and proper to sell any Arawak who rebelled, or any Carib, regardless of his conduct, into slavery in Spain. In the Torres Memorandum of February 4, 1494, Columbus proposed to build a fleet of boats to raid the Caribbee Islands and obtain a supply of captives for shipment home, as a means of paying for the cattle and other supplies needed for Hispaniola. He advanced the familiar Portuguese argument that this would be all for "the welfare of the souls of the said *Caníbales*."⁹ This was the one proposal in the Torres Memorandum toward which the Sovereigns showed no enthusiasm. They wished to hear more on the subject from the Admiral, before deciding. Ignoring this caution, he began to ship home Indian slaves in 1495; and persisted in so doing despite a distinct rebuke from the Queen. These wretched creatures proved so useless as workers in Spain that the American Indian slave trade died a natural death.

We may then infer both from what Columbus said and from what he did, that his original colonial policy, through the year 1493, consisted of four principles of Portuguese origin: (1) the establishment of a new trading empire in the Far East; (2) exclusion of all but Catholic Christians from its benefits; (3) conversion of the natives to Christianity; and (4) the enslavement of hostile or recalcitrant natives, as a method of punishment and a source of profit.

There is no internal contradiction between these principles or objects, as has been alleged by Vignaud, Carbia, and Cecil Jane. They have argued that Columbus did not expect to reach the Orient, because his cargo included nothing that would have been any use in China, India or Japan—only such cheap trading truck

as glass beads, hawks' bells and scarlet cloth, which the Portuguese used in their West African trade. But Vasco da Gama carried exactly the same sort of truck in 1498, and nobody denies that he sought to establish a trading factory in India. It has also been argued that the Spanish Sovereigns could not have been so naive as to suppose that Columbus with three ships and ninety men could establish a trading colony on the shores of a powerful oriental kingdom. But the German geographer, Müntzer, when urging D. João II to finance a voyage west to the Orient in 1493, wrote, "O what glory you would gain, if you made the habitable Orient known to the Occident, and what profits would its commerce give you, for you would make these islands of the Orient tributaries, *and their kings amazed would quietly submit to your sovereignty.*"¹⁰

The fact is that European ignorance of the Far East in 1492 was abysmal, and Columbus expected kings of the Orient to offer no more opposition to "peaceful penetration" by Spain than the kings of Guinea had to Portugal. Similarly, he assumed that they would be well pleased with gifts of red caps, brass rings, and glass beads. Columbus proposed to establish a greater São Jorge da Mina on one of the islands outlying China, such as were depicted in great numbers on Behaim's globe. This post would become a vast place of exchange for products of the Far East with those of Spain, and a center of Christian missionary effort; the revenues thereof would enrich him and his family forever.

It has generally escaped notice that the sort of empire that Columbus had in mind was actually established by Spain eighty years later, when Legaspi founded Manila. For more than two centuries Manila was a gorgeous trading factory—a place of exchange for Spanish and Mexican products with those of China, Japan, the Moluccas,

and India, as well as a center of missionary effort in the Far East. All the Spanish colonists except some of the friars were engaged in trade, even the friars were dependent on the trade for their revenue, and practically nothing was done to exploit and develop Luzón outside Manila, or any of the rest of the archipelago. Hence it was in Manila that Spain finally realized the original colonial policy of Columbus, built around the trading empire concept.

Only gradually did the facts of the New World of his discovery alter Columbus's conception of the Orient of his dreams. One of his first thoughts when exploring San Salvador was to establish a fortress there, obviously as an armed trading post. Believing, however, that he had touched only the fringe of the Orient, he continued his quest for Cipangu and Cathay. The same thought recurred at Río de Mares



COLUMBUS MONUMENT, LA PAZ

(Puerto Gibara). As the wonders of Cuba opened up, and the defenselessness of the Arawak was repeatedly demonstrated, he began to think of colonization and exploitation as well. Puerto Cayo Moa, with its pines and water power, he designated as a site for shipbuilding; and a passage written in his Journal at Baracoa on November 27, 1492, shows how he was trying to fit the parts of this strange world into his trading factory concept of empire: "Profitable things without number. . . . A city and fortress to be built in these parts, and these countries converted. . . . The rivers are not like those of Guinea. . . . No foreigner except Catholic Christians to be allowed to do business or set foot here."¹¹

So far, Columbus had been disappointed by the scarcity of gold objects, with which he had hoped to begin a profitable trade. But he was greatly encouraged on reaching Hispaniola to find caciques who differed only in degree, not in kind, from his conception of an oriental potentate. Gold there was abundant and cheap, the mines of Cibao (could they be Cipangu?) were not far away. Indeed the Río Yaque del Norte turned out to be just such a Pactolus as the Portuguese had sought in Africa. After the loss of the *Santa María* on Christmas Eve, Columbus established his first temporary trading factory, the fortress of La Navidad, and left a garrison which was instructed to search for "the mine" and seek out a better trading-factory site in his absence.

Columbus is first known to have suggested a colonial policy to the Sovereigns in his letter to them written at Seville at Eastertide, 1493. That letter is highly realistic in that it assumes that gold would be the only object to draw Spaniards to Hispaniola. They are to build houses and become proper settlers, and will be permitted to mine gold and trade in gold

under license and strict control, giving the Crown half their profits. There will be a closed season on gold gathering, so that food may be produced. Not more than four settlements are to be established in Hispaniola, and all trade with the Spanish Indies is to be carried on between Cádiz in the Peninsula, and a designated port or ports in the island. In other words, Columbus projects a trading-factory colony like São Jorge, with a sufficient Spanish population to mine gold and produce food. He has observed that the natives have only limited amounts of gold in their possession, which will soon be exhausted by trade, and proposes that the Spaniards go after it themselves.

The Second Voyage to the New World, with seventeen vessels and twelve hundred to fifteen hundred men, was organized for colonization along the lines that Columbus suggested. Hispaniola was to be a crown colony of the trading-factory type, with a majority of the settlers and all the garrison on the royal pay roll. Volunteer settlers are welcome, provided they obey the gold and other regulations. Trade is to be conducted only with the barter truck provided by the government; private trading is prohibited. No vessels may sail to "the Indies" without royal license.¹² Missionary priests are provided, and the settlers must treat the natives kindly so that they may the more readily be brought into the bosom of the Church. Apart from these general stipulations, Columbus was given a completely free hand by the Sovereigns as to administration and government of the colony.

Columbus established his trading-factory at Isabela on the north coast of Hispaniola on January 2, 1494. Like every other first settlement of a European power in America, like Roanoke Island, St. Croix, the fort on the Sagadahoc, and the first Dutch post on the Hudson, the site proved unsuitable



Courtesy of the Commission of Fine Arts

COLUMBUS FOUNTAIN, WASHINGTON

and had to be abandoned. The Admiral's efforts to build Isabela as a permanent city of stone indicates that the splendid São Jorge da Mina was still in the back of his mind. Homes for the settlers were all within the town, which at once became overcrowded and sickly; Columbus's first mistake was in bringing too many people. The level plain outside was promptly put under the plow, and the seeds, vines, and rattoons with which Columbus had provided himself were sown or set out; cattle, swine, and poultry were turned loose to breed and multiply. It had been his plan to provide the people with wine and food from Spain until the new crops were harvested and the flocks and herds increased and the vines bore grapes; but it proved

impossible to make anyone pay attention to agriculture when fabulous mines of gold were at their back doors. The first colony in the New World turned out to be nothing more or less than a glorified gold hunt. So, over a century later, at Jamestown, the paternal efforts of the Virginia Company to diversify production and make the colony self-sustaining in food, were thwarted by the desire of every emigrating Englishman, whether peasant, artisan, vigneron, ironworker, or lumber-jack, to grow tobacco and make a cash crop.

One of the wisest things Columbus ever wrote on a colonial policy was his statement about food, in the Memorandum of February 4, 1494: "The preservation of health . . . depends on these people being

provided with the provisions that they are accustomed to in Spain." This he had learned from the Portuguese. Nothing in the African West Coast diet, except fish, was grateful to European stomachs, and many of the fish were poisonous. Consequently the Portuguese made no serious attempt to "live off the country" in West Africa; if they had, it would have led to sickness, discontent, and mutiny. So, when Columbus left his garrison at La Navidad on Hispaniola in January, 1493, he stripped himself of ship provisions such as wine, biscuit, and salt meat, in order to supply the garrison against his return, and chose rather to put *Niña's* crew on a diet of cassava and native roots, because the homeward voyage was expected to last only a

few weeks. In the Torres Memorandum that Columbus sent to Spain on February 4, 1494, by the fleet that brought out the first colony, he warned the Sovereigns:

The preservation of health, under God, depends on these people being provided with the provisions that they are accustomed to in Spain, for none of them, nor others who may come later, can serve their Highnesses unless they are healthy. And this provision must last until a supply can be secured from what is sown and planted here, I mean from wheat and barley and vines.¹³

This food problem gave Columbus as a colonial administrator more headaches than any other, except the control of gold. It was so difficult and expensive to keep the colony supplied with Spanish food and wine that he made repeated efforts both to induce his people to raise crops and cattle, which they steadfastly refused to do, and to accustom them to live on cassava and corn bread, yams and sweet potatoes,¹⁴ local fish and the hutia, the one edible quadruped of the Antilles. This they would only do if compelled by necessity; in particular, they complained against being compelled to drink water instead of wine. Columbus even adopted the desperate expedient of sending Pedro Margarit roaming about Hispaniola with several hundred men, in order to accustom them to the native food, and to release the scanty Spanish provisions for the sick and the builders of Isabela. It was many years, however, before the Spaniards managed to adapt themselves to the Indian diet, and many more before the colony became self-sufficing. Las Casas tells us that one of the principal reasons for the unpopularity of the Columbian régime was its failure to keep the Spaniards supplied with wine and food from home. The Columbus brothers were charged with using Spanish food supplies for political purposes, giving them freely to the loyal and industrious, and withholding them from the lazy and rebellious.¹⁵ So many complaints of this



BOGOTÁ'S TRIBUTE

nature reached the Queen, that she ordered Columbus to make an equal rather than a just distribution of the supply.

Columbus's discovery that the preservation of health depended on European colonists being supplied with European food is amply illustrated by the history of the Americas well into the seventeenth century. We are all familiar with the "starving times" in a land of plenty at Jamestown, Plymouth, and Massachusetts Bay. The complaints of Columbus's first colonists are echoed by one of John Winthrop's in 1631: "we do not know how long we may subseiste for we can not live her without provisseyenes from ould eignland."¹⁶ A sea voyage in itself was debilitating to colonists who were not seamen and so had no exercise except to their stomach muscles. No sooner did a colony land than the mosquitoes started pumping new germs into the European blood stream; and if the Indians were kind, *spirochaeta pallida* got in her deadly work. If in addition the unhappy pioneer's stomach was subjected to water, cassava, and corn it broke him up completely. Even in our own day, European immigrants prefer their own to American food: Italians import their *pasta*, and Orientals their rice. Readers of Rölvaag's *Giants in the Earth* will remember Beret's feeling of horror and repulsion at the eating of prairie dogs, which from her Old-World point of view were "troll food."

Within a year of the founding of Isabela, Columbus's trading-factory policy had broken down. The basic reason was the fact that the Taino were not natural traders, like the Negroes of West Africa. The gold ornaments that they displayed and sold cheap to the Spaniards were their family heirlooms and plate; when these were gone, more gold could be provided only by the laborious process of mining. "Consumer demand" among these Indians was completely satisfied when every Indian had a



STATUE IN GUATEMALA CITY

few hawks' bells, glass beads, bits of brass, and some scarlet cloth. They could not be tempted to work by a display of more substantial goods. So, at the very time when the fortunate Portuguese were successfully extending their trading empire among people who had a brisk demand for European goods, and unlimited supplies of spices, drugs, gems, and precious metals to pay for them, Columbus was forced to adopt a new technique in order to procure even a limited amount of gold. By the end of 1494 Isabela was no longer a trading factory. It was the center of a mining colony, based on slave labor and tribute. Columbus not only exacted a tribute from natives in the form of gold dust, but he sent to Spain for expert metallurgists who acted as bosses to gangs of Arawak captives

who delved wherever "pay dirt" was found, and panned out gold from river-beds.

There were other causes of the transition from trading to mining, and finally to mining and agriculture, all these causes being so integrated that they are difficult to isolate. The rascally coopers of Cádiz, who sent Columbus to sea with leaky casks that wasted his precious wine, the scoundrelly ship-chandlers of Seville, who gave short measures of bread and meat, caused Spanish food and wine to be soon exhausted in Hispaniola. Columbus's expedient of turning men loose to forage for themselves so terrorized the Indians that they revolted, which gave the Spaniards captive labor to exploit in the mines or to export to Spain. The quick exhaustion of Indian gold supplies bitterly disappointed Spaniards who had come over with the sole idea of getting rich quick. They refused to do honest work, and had to be subjected to heavy and (to their proud natures) intolerable discipline by the Columbus brothers, whose iron rule they were the less willing to bear because it was "foreign." The natives were not being converted, but terrorized, enslaved, and exterminated. Columbus, knowing that his colony was still a heavy charge on the books of the Treasurer of Castile, turned to another policy of his Portuguese teachers, the slave trade; this, and the loud complaints of their subjects against Columbus, caused the Sovereigns to withdraw their support and favor.

Especially significant is the explanation of Michele de Cuneo, Columbus's Genoese shipmate, as to the reason why, after eighteen months' occupation, Hispaniola was producing no European food. "Although the soil is very black and good they have not yet found the way nor the time to plant; *the reason is that nobody wants to live in these countries.*"¹⁷ Everybody wished to get the maximum amount of gold and go

home to spend it; nobody cared to become a permanent colonist. By 1496, says Las Casas, the only oath heard in Isabela was *así Dios me lleve a Castilla*, "as God may take me to Castile!"

How often that cry echoed in the early history of the French and English colonies! One recalls in particular Sir Thomas Dale's letter from Virginia in 1611: "everie man allmost laments himself of being here, and murmurs at his present state . . ." ¹⁸ Few Americans today can imagine how unpopular their countries were among the first Europeans, and what heroism and persistence were needed before substantial settlers could be induced to make their homes in the New World. The vast majority of our earliest pioneers, whether Spanish, Portuguese, English, French, or Dutch, were unadaptable, unreasonable, nostalgic, complaining or cowardly. All honor to the saving remnant!

By 1496, when Columbus returned to Spain, almost everyone regarded the first European colony in the New World as a costly failure. Even the gold was no good, according to the malicious report of a Sevillian goldsmith who had preceded the Admiral home. Columbus feared lest the entire force of Spaniards be withdrawn and the colony abandoned to the Indians; that might well have happened, but for his persuasive eloquence, and for the fact that the honor of his Sovereigns was engaged in the Enterprise. As it was, ten months elapsed after his return home before the Admiral could procure any action toward strengthening and reinforcing the colony.

In April 1497, he finally obtained the attention of the Sovereigns, who began issuing numerous orders about Hispaniola. In general, these orders implied a mixed trading-factory and mining technique. A new and really suitable site for the

factory, Santo Domingo, where the Jaina River made a good harbor on the south coast, had been selected by Columbus before he sailed home, and the Sovereigns approved the abandonment of Isabela. They authorized him to recruit three hundred persons on the royal pay roll, fifty volunteers who were allowed maintenance only, and thirty women who were to have neither pay nor maintenance. Apparently these poor creatures who had to work their passage were the first European women who came to the New World.

One article in the instructions and orders of 1497 marked a new departure in colonial policy. Columbus was authorized to allot planting lands to individuals. Thus early, he and his Sovereigns learned a lesson that every other colonizing power

had to learn anew: that only private property in land could persuade Europeans to stay in America. The other new departure was the offer of free pardon to criminals if they would go with the Admiral to Hispaniola and stay for a period of one to two years, depending on the degree of the crime which they had committed. This became a basic law of Spanish colonial policy, and the same expedient was resorted to by every other colonizing power in America. With some reason Dr. Johnson once exclaimed to Boswell, "America, sir, is a nation of convicts!"¹⁹

Again a vicious circle was established. Criminal elements sent to the colony made the Spaniards there all the more difficult to manage. Columbus cut short his Third Voyage when on the verge of discovering the pearl fisheries of Cubagua,



Courtesy of Horacio Acosta y Lara

COLUMBUS ARCH, MONTEVIDEO

because of a premonition that all was not well in Hispaniola. (This was not the first time that the Admiral's responsibilities as a colonial administrator got in his way as an explorer, or vice versa.) When he arrived at Santo Domingo, at the end of August 1498, the rebellion of Roldán was in full swing, and a large proportion of the loyal colonists, now reduced to a few hundred in number, were down with syphilis. Columbus had so few loyal and healthy men at his disposal that he was forced to make terms with Roldán, and in this capitulation we find for the first time the *repartimientos* which became a basic Spanish colonial institution.

The *repartimiento* furthered the transition from a trading to an agricultural colony, and proved to be the most successful and lasting thing that Columbus accomplished in colonial policy. A section of land *with the Indians who tilled it* was granted to each one of Roldán's men, the unit being enough land to grow 10,000 cassava plants. Both land and Indians were the Spaniard's to have and to hold. These *repartimientos* served a triple purpose. They induced many roving Spaniards to settle down as farmers, provided them with native labor, and relieved the Indians of the intolerable gold tribute. But the *repartimientos* did not at first solve the problem of making the colony pay, or decrease the unpopularity of Columbus among the colonists. The arrival of Bobadilla and the sending home of the Admiral and his brothers in 1500 ended an impossible situation, and removed Columbus from any further influence on colonial policy. He did indeed attempt to start a new trading factory on the mainland, Santa María de Belén, on his Fourth Voyage; but the Guaymi Indians, more warlike than the Arawak, promptly broke that up; and Columbus, after being marooned for a year in Jamaica, returned to Spain to die.

Thus Columbus, unsuccessful as he was as a colonial administrator, initiated and applied the earliest colonial policy toward America. He envisaged a trading-factory on the Portuguese African model, where a Spanish garrison would conduct trade with the natives, for the profit of the crown, the crown paying all expenses and providing the garrison with food from home until they could grow their own. He also planned a large-scale conversion of the natives to Christianity. This policy broke down almost at once because the Taino were not a trading people, because the Spaniards, to get the desired gold, had to exploit, and because of the expense and difficulty of transporting Spanish provisions to America. Columbus then attempted to procure profits by an Indian slave trade, and by mining gold with compulsory labor. Both these expedients failed. He then moved away further from the trading-factory concept by making private allotments of land and of native labor to individuals. Thus the Admiral himself applied to his ill-advised policy of Portuguese origin, the main correctives—a land and labor policy—that put the Spanish Empire on a sound basis.

Notwithstanding the priority of Columbus, every other colonizing power in America made the same mistakes as he. The Portuguese in Brazil, the French in Canada, the English in Virginia and New England, began with trading posts and gold hunting, and sooner or later ended with farms. They too went through "starving times," not because provisions were wanting in America, but because they were too choosy, or their stomachs too queasy, for American food. Their settlements were rendered miserable by discontented, mutinous, and criminal pioneers who were interested only in getting rich quick and going home to spend ill-gotten gains. Lord Bacon's wise advice in his essay *Of*

Plantations was based on the experience of early Virginia; but it might as well have been based on the experience of Columbus and the Spaniards.

NOTES

1. The *New English Dictionary* has an excellent short essay on the word colony. Eden's first use is in *Decades of the Newe Worlde* (1555) II i 56 (also in Arber *First Three English Books on America*, p. 110): "vppon the bankes whereof, beinge verry frutefull of trees and grasse, they entended to playnte their newe colonie or habitacion." This is a translation of Peter Martyr's *De Orbe Nouo Decades* (Alcalá 1516), sig. d iiii reverse: "in cuius ripa herbida et arborifera figere pedem statuunt: licet parvo lentoque alveo constet." *Plantation* was a most common English word for colony in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

2. Joachim Bensaude *Lacunes et Surprises dans l'Histoire des Découvertes Maritimes*, I^e Partie, Coimbra, 1930.

3. S. E. Morison *Portuguese Voyages to America in the Fifteenth Century* (1940) p. 67. Williamson pointed out the resemblance of these documents in his *Voyages of the Cabots*.

4. Best text is *Raccolta Colombiana* I i (1932) 136-38; facsimile and poor translation in J. B. Thacher *Columbus* III 98-113. The date is between April 7 and 10, 1493.

5. The important bulls are printed in F. G. Davenport *European Treaties bearing on the History of the United States and its Dependencies to 1648* (Washington 1917) pp. 33-35. See J. W. Blake *European Beginnings in West Africa* (London 1937).

6. *Raccolta Colombiana*, I i (1892) 51.

7. Azurara (Gomes Eannes de Zurara) *Chronica do Descobrimento e Conquista de Guiné*. Bernard Miall translation (*Conquests and Discoveries of Henry the Navigator* 1936).

8. John W. Blake *European Beginnings in West Africa* (London 1937) pp. 98-99.

9. Cecil Jane *Select Documents Illustrating the Four Voyages of Columbus* (Hakluyt Society vol. LXV 1930) I 90-92.

10. The most available texts and translations of this letter are in Vignaud *Histoire Critique de la Grande Entreprise de Chr. Colomb* (1911) II 620-25, and E. F. Ravenstein *Martin Behaim* (1908) p. 113. The reference by the Sovereigns and Columbus to the Emperor of China as the Grand Khan also shows the paucity of knowledge about the Far East, for that title had become extinct with the end of the Tartar dynasty in 1368.

11. *Raccolta Colombiana*, I i (1892) 50-51.

12. The documents on the preparations and instructions for the Second Voyage are printed in Fernández de Navarrete *Colección de los Viages* II and in *Documentos Inéditos*.

13. Cecil Jane *op. cit.* I 83.

14. Pedro Henríquez Ureña *El Enigma del Aje* (Buenos Aires 1938).

15. Las Casas *Historia de las Indias* lib. i cap. 180 (1927 ed. II 111-12); Navarrete (ed. I) II 176.

16. S. E. Morison *Builders of the Bay Colony* p. 81.

17. Letter of Cuneo, 1495, in *Raccolta* III ii 101.

18. Las Casas *Historia de las Indias* lib. i cap. 108, 150 (1927 ed. I 438, 584); Alex. Brown *Genesis of the United States* I 506.

19. The orders and instructions of 1497-98 are printed in Navarrete II 180-217; the decree on criminals appears in somewhat altered form in J. Ramírez *Las Pragmáticas* (Salamanca 1503).

Columbus in the Literature of Portugal and Brazil

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COLUMBUS has never had a "good press" in Portugal nor, consequently, in Brazil. And literature, like a flower at the tip of a branch, can exist only if it has a trunk and roots.

From its eastern limits bordering the Castilian plateau, Portugal slopes gradually to the sea which, at the behest of geography, has always lured that country's inhabitants. In the Ethnographic Museum at Lisbon may be seen evidences of maritime enterprises dating back to pre-historic times. After the historical era began, coastwise migrations went from the Mediterranean even to the north of Europe. Legend has it that Ulysses was the founder of Lisbon (Ulissipo) and Diomedes the founder of Vianna. Phoenicians and Carthaginians left their ethnical imprint on the shores of Lusitania, where it is still visible today, at Nazaré, Ovar, Ilhavo, and Aveiro. Then came the Romans, by land. But there was the sea, always the sea—at first a call, then an obsession. . . . Poets began to look upon Portugal as an oceanic watch-tower: Garden of Europe, planted at the edge of the sea. . . . ^{a 1}

At the beginning there were fishing and navigation from cape to cape, practically in sight of land, as the lateen sails of the Mediterranean permitted. With time and experience the Portuguese became the inventors of long-range navigation, adding the square sail to the lateen. "The Portu-

guese invented the mixed rig device—square rig for sailing downwind and lateen sails for sailing to windward. Thus they could follow the eternal set of the trade winds. This revolution in the art of navigation was of no less significance than another revolution then about to take place—the transmission of ideas by means of printing. The two complemented each other." ²

The Portuguese planted on the sand dunes of the beaches pine groves, which later became the source of timber for ship-building. An admiral and mariners were brought from Genoa, to found schools and arsenals in Portugal. Long-range voyaging was part of the political program, for purposes of both commerce and colonization. At the end of the twelfth century Portuguese traders were pointed out in Marseilles and Montpellier. In 1194 a Portuguese boat loaded with merchandise was wrecked in the North Sea, on the coast of Holland. In 1213 John Lackland, King of England (of Magna Charta fame), authorized Portuguese merchants to bring their goods to his domains.

When Alfonso III expelled the last of the Moors from Portugal in 1249, Africa suggested itself as a place to visit, to trade with, to occupy, to be another "Alharb" or African Algarve (province). The urge for colonization led to the not far distant isles, the Azores and Madeira . . . to the African coast on the way to India. In Sagres Prince Henrique the Navigator

¹ *The original Portuguese of the poetry quoted herein appears at the end of the article.*

² *Reparaz, "Historia de la Colonización," Tomo I, p. 19.*

brought together pilots, cosmographers, sailors in a school which, although it may never have formally existed, accomplished many practical results. Under Dom João II navigators pushed on beyond the 1,700 nautical miles of African coast that had already been explored, and in 1488 the Portuguese Bartolomeu Dias and his men succeeded in rounding the Cape of Good Hope, at last opening the route to the Indies that Vasco da Gama was to take ten years later.

Now Columbus, married to Felipa, daughter of Bartholomeu Perestrelo, who had been captain of the Island of Pôrto Santo, had learned navigation by taking part in Portuguese voyages. Aristotle had said that the sea was narrow between the coast of Iberia in the Occident and the shores of India in the Orient. Seneca offered this suggestion: "There will come an age in the far-off years when the ocean shall unloose the bonds of things, when the whole earth shall be revealed; when Tiphys shall disclose new worlds and Thule will not be the limit of the land."³ Twice, in his own hand, Columbus transcribed these lines of the poet. Posidonius, the teacher of Cicero, had said that one could go from Spain to India by circling to the east. In the Middle Ages Roger Bacon had repeated the same statement. Therefore the novelty about Columbus was that he wanted to go to India by way of the west, by sea. He corresponded with the Florentine physician, mathematician, and geographer, Paolo Toscanelli, who maintained that, the earth being round, there would be a western route to the Indies shorter than that by way of Guinea, or, in other words, than that around Africa; if the reports of Marco Polo were accepted, the western route became very attractive. With these ideas and "certainties" in

mind, Columbus insistently offered his services to Dom João II of Portugal.

In order to keep himself well informed, Dom João II had a number of technical advisers. Hieronymus Müntzer, from the court of the Emperor Maximilian, bears witness to this fact. The King was well acquainted with all the experiences of Portuguese navigators. He had a personal fondness for the square-rigged caravels which were more practical on sea voyages. The Genoese was loquacious and haughty. "However," says the chronicler João de Barros, "by reason of the force of his importunities, the King ordered that he should go and see Dom Diogo Ortiz, Bishop of Ceuta, and Master Rodrigo and Master Josepe (Vizinho) [two Jewish doctors of proven scientific ability], to whom he confided these matters of cosmography and his discoveries. To all of them the words of Columbus appeared fatuous, based solely on imagination and on Marco Polo's tales of the Isle of Cipango [Japan] and not on what Jerônimo Cardam says."

To go to India by way of the west: at the most the project interested Dom João II but little, for Dias had already indicated the eastern route. Columbus's petition was rejected. He left for Castile, "where he went clamoring about with this request," says João de Barros, "until through the intercession of the Archbishop of Toledo, Don Pedro González de Mendoza, the King listened to what he had to say." But the decision of the experts of Spain was likewise unfavorable to him.

Isabella, however, was no expert in such matters, and being touched, she simply followed her womanly intuition and had money given to Columbus. Thus, leading three small caravels, that foolhardy man, Columbus, reached America in his attempt to find his objective, the passage to Cipango, Cathay, and the Indies. He

³ From Seneca's "Medea," as translated by Frank Justus Miller for the Loeb Classical Library series.

died without finding that passage . . . but he discovered America.

The unexpected colonizing enterprise of Castile was an unwelcome surprise to Portugal. A Spanish Pope, Alexander VI, immediately proceeded to divide the world from pole to pole into two parts, one for whoever went seeking to add worlds to the world, and the other for whoever was not so concerned. . . . On the return voyage, when Columbus passed through Lisbon in order to boast of his find, some unscrupulous people wanted to kill him, and thus to suppress both discoverer and discovery. The King frowned on this, ordered him to be gone, and only tried to change the line set by the Pontiff—100 leagues beyond Cape Verde. This was changed to 370 leagues beyond Cape Verde by the Treaty of Tordesillas in 1494. In the 270 additional leagues thus gained by Portugal lies eastern Brazil, from the mouth of the Amazon to São Paulo.

These are the reasons why, in the land of Dom Henrique, Dom João II, Duarte Pacheco, Bartolomeu Dias, and Vasco da Gama—and in Brazil, Portugal's realm in America—Columbus and his discovery enjoyed no popularity.

This explanation shows why Columbus was not, why he could not have been, an interesting literary subject in Portugal, and consequently in colonial Brazil, even though the latter is in America. From the time of the Renaissance, an exacting and intransigent nationalism began to take shape and even today it is the custom to praise only national heroes. The Spaniards did not forget that their navigator was Genoese. . . . Magellan, the circumnavigator, had no one on his side except history, for Portugal, his fatherland, disparaged him thus:

Magellan in his exploits was true Portuguese,
But not in fealty.^b

CAMÕES, *The Lusiads*, X, 140.

And Spain, notwithstanding his deeds, did not make him a naturalized Spaniard. Columbus, fortunately for him, had Italy. He has America, too; especially and increasingly since the independence of the American Republics.

Notwithstanding the paucity of Portuguese literary production on Columbus, we may cite a poem, in French, by Marie Anne LePage, wife of Fiquet du Boccage, and by marriage maternal aunt of the great Portuguese poet, Manoel Maria Barbosa du Bocage, second in reputation only to Camões. She lived to the age of ninety-two and died in 1802, three years before her nephew, who translated her verses into his native tongue. Madame du Boccage enjoyed considerable renown. As she was pretty, her talents appeared even more marvelous, and she received a laurel wreath from Voltaire at Ferney for her poem, *La Colombiade*. Her admirers called her the "French Sappho," and under her portrait they engraved these words: "Forma Venus, Arte Minerva." Beautiful women always have talent. *La Colombiade, ou La Foi Portée au Nouveau Monde* was a success. But it was French literature, it will be said. . . . No, the nephew translated one canto, the first of the poem, and it is included in his works, *Poesias de M. M. Barbosa du Bocage* (Edição de Inocêncio, Lisboa, 1853, T. IV, F. 324, et seq.).

I sing the Genoese, Urania's pupil,
By evil and envious spirits beleaguered;
Who sailed far beyond the Tagus
To discover the wealth of the Indies.^c

The fact that the poem has Columbus sailing from the Tagus or from Lisbon, instead of from Palos in Andalusia, was due to ignorance of geography, which is said to be a French weakness. The treasures "of the Indies" were also a geographical error, but in this instance it is a question of the collaboration of Madame du Boccage with her hero, who thought he had ar-

rived in India, as he wished to do, but who discovered America instead. . . .

A hundred years passed and near the end of the nineteenth century, in 1892, when the four-hundredth anniversary of the Discovery of America was being celebrated by all the world, and when there was restored to Columbus the glory usurped by that other Italian whose name was given to the New World, *La Colombiade* reappeared, all its ten cantos having been translated into Portuguese by the Viscount of Seabra. There were two curious facts about the translation, however. One was that the translator, in spite of being a man of culture, was ignorant of the fact that there already existed a partial translation of the poem by Madame du Bocage, made by no less a person than the great Portuguese poet of the same name. The Viscount knew that the author had been praised by Voltaire, Fontenelle, and Benedict XIV, and that she was an "ancestor of the immortal Bocage, prince of our modern lyricists," but he made no allusion to the earlier translation. Columbus had no luck. The other curious thing about this translation was that the author was a prominent jurist who had contributed to the Portuguese Civil Code both his knowledge of jurisprudence and an excellent style. From the reputation thus gained his poetry did not detract. In this Columbus was in luck.

On the other side of the ocean, in Brazil, Columbus was not very fortunate in the amount of literature written about him. In 1854, Sacramento Blake tells us,⁴ there appeared a lyric opera, *Colombo ou o descobrimento da América* (Columbus, or the Discovery of America), by J. Noberto de S. S. (Joaquim Noberto de Sousa e Silva, 1820-1891), set to music by Domingo José Ferreira of the Conservatory of Rio de

Janeiro. The poem was the libretto of an opera; this in itself is a criticism. Nevertheless, it should not be forgotten. In the opera Columbus implores the Spanish Sovereigns, Ferdinand and Isabella, in these words:

King and queen, resplendent in glory on your throne!

The way is open, offered by the hand of the Omnipotent.

Forward, then, and the world will be yours!

Oh, a ship, just one ship, I beg of you!

I will bear your names to the ends of the earth;

I will seek a new sky, a new hemisphere,

Where the fame of this day will resound

And your scepter extend its sway! ^d

He refers to the conquest of Granada from the Moors. Brazilian "nationalism" is already showing its influence, for the navigator addressing the sovereigns, makes this comparison:

And while the Portuguese unfurl their sails

Without losing sight of the land,

I shall plunge forward across the ocean,

And hail the birthplace of the dawn. ^e

This nationalism, a Brazilian and anti-Portuguese nativism, evolved from the era of independence and still exists, as we are not very sure at times that we are independent; whence, this reaction. It is true that the *Hispanidad*, the *Sinarquismo* of the Spaniards with regard to Ibero-America encourage their Portuguese neighbors, who begin to talk of a similar empire. . . . There are some mad Spaniards who dream of a reconquest. . . . Don Quixote and Sancho Panza thus create disaffection and ill will.

Of much more importance is *Colombo*, the poem issued in two volumes in 1866 by Manoel de Araujo Porto Alegre (1806-1874). He began publishing excerpts of the first cantos in the review *Guanabara* as early as 1851, and continued later to do so in the *Revista Brasileira*. Before independence Porto Alegre's name was Manoel

⁴ *Dic. Bibli.*, T. IV, p. 214.

José de Araujo, but moved, like so many patriots, by a spirit of nationalism, he changed his Portuguese name to a Brazilian one. *Colombo* also showed a nativistic reaction. In it the author created a poetic school of a nativistic subgenus that he calls *Brasiliana*. His *Colombo* has also a political significance: Americanism. Although Alexandre Herculano, the great Portuguese writer, was asked by Pedro II of Brazil to write an epic on America, he could not conceive of one on that subject so far removed from antiquity or the Middle Ages, which he considered the proper setting for such poems.

But it did not matter; youth imitates old age, even without design. If Portugal had its songs on Portuguese feats of navigation to the Indies, Brazil had Porto Alegre celebrating Columbus, and Gonçalves Magalhães singing of the savages in *Confederação dos Tamoyos* (The Confederation of the Tamoyos), even though there was an elementary error of public law in the title. . . . This would have been a knock-out blow for Camões.

As a matter of fact, *The Lusiads* have only 10 cantos and 8,816 lines, while *Colombo* has a prologue, 40 cantos, and more than 24,000 lines. In the prologue, Columbus wins Isabella and the Court when, disguised as the Black Knight, he miraculously conquers the Marqués de Cádiz by strength of arms in a tournament:

On the green ground of the Brazilian jungle
Lies the great anteater;
He parries the sly jaguar's calculated leap,
And in mortal embrace buries his claws in the
jaguar's back.^f

Were it not for royal clemency, the anteater would vanquish the jaguar. The anteater is Columbus, an American metaphor. Thus it is that Isabella, through personal admiration for the

Knight, permits the Navigator to discover America:

Yes, noble queen, that Lady
For whom my strength conquered the invincible
Cádiz,
That angel who on wings of mystery
Rose to a sky of glory, is none but thee, madame!
Forgive my boldness, I entreat thee;
Mine, in all certainty, was not the victory!
Nature forbids this to an arm
That in five and forty years has only fought
misfortune.
'Twas the strength of God brandished my lance
in combat;
His the might that filled me with power so great!
But if thine is this glory,
A still greater awaits thee beyond the seas,
In those lands that I, I alone, can see;
Where soon I shall plant thy august scepter
beside the Cross,
To the wonderment of all the world.
Between two worlds I shall establish thy throne;
The broad ocean shall be thy carpet
And thy throne shall bridge the universe!
A ship, my Lady! The rest I have!
Give me a ship, and to thee I will give a world.^g

So Isabella promises him the ship. . . . America will be found. As may be seen by the Portuguese original, the poem has imagination, invention, verbal felicity, and flowing lines, even though it is very long.

But it is not enough to find a New World. There is the future. The French Revolution comes:

Like a sun that bursts forth in horrendous night
Filling the sky with flaming dust,
So shall be shattered the throne of France,
Filling Europe with calamitous fire.^h

Then Napoleon:

Over trails of blood, to the crack of gunshot and
thunder,
Kings must flee,
Leaving their thrones to the mercy of an ambitious
soldier,
By force of arms raised to imperial glory.
Genius sublime!ⁱ

The poem continues, paying the admiring tribute of the nineteenth century to the monster who is still setting such a bad example to the world. . . . All this for the

purpose of accusing the Portuguese Court
of fleeing from Europe to Rio de Janeiro:

Fugitive the race of João the Second,
Seeking asylum here . . .ⁱ

Prophets sometimes do not know history:
the future Dom João VI was not a descend-
ant of Dom João II. . . . But we come
now to Dom Pedro II of Brazil, as Pamor-
phio (a spirit in the form of a woman)
speaks to Columbus:

The future disturbs me; and the new Empire,
Child of the Cross and protected by it,
Torments me most of all, Columbus.^k

In America, north, central, and south,
only the Brazilian throne preoccupies
Columbus and Pamorphio!

Lusitanian race, thou shalt increase with time,
If to my influence thou dost oppose virtues
In contrast to thy fathers' errors.^l

But patriotically, Porto Alegre fore-
shadows the greatness of Brazil, which ap-
pears to have been very interesting to
Columbus:

Such an Empire has to be. . . .^m

At length America is discovered, and
Columbus returns. He dies finally, but
not before Porto Alegre makes his apolo-
gies:

Forgive the bard, Columbus, if his love
Exceeds his skill.ⁿ

The author also expresses his devotion

To the throne of the father of Brazil,
Pedro the Second, Perpetual Defender,
Who wears the palms he won in Uruguay.^o

One of the last lines refers to Brazil:
The beauteous shores of our beloved country.^p

Anti-Portuguese in policy, *Colombo* is
Brazilian in its art and patriotism, and
American in its "continentalism." It is
no longer read, even though it deserves to
be, but still it is not entirely forgotten.

As a contrast to this long poem, we may
take a short one by the greatest of Brazilian
poets, who did for slavery in Brazil what

Harriet Beecher Stowe accomplished in
her country. *Cachoeira de Paulo Afonso* (The
Cataract of Paulo Afonso) was our *Uncle
Tom's Cabin*, according to Professor Le
Gentil of the Sorbonne. Castro Alves, in
O Livro e a América (The Book and
America), chants in cosmic terms:

Fashioned for greatness,
Carved out to grow, to create, to rise,
The New World in his muscles
Feels the sap of the future.
One day Jehovah, sculptor of colossal statues,
Tired of other designs, said:
"Go, Columbus, raise the curtain
Of my eternal workshop . . .
And bring forth America."
Still wet from the deluge,
Like some mighty Triton,
The continent awakes
To the universal concert.
Of the surrounding oceans
One brings the arts of Europe,
Another, the spices of Ceylon,
And the Andes lift their arms of solid rock,
Pointing to the infinite.
Gazing about, America exclaimed:
"All, all moves forward! Oh, great God!
The cataracts toward the earth,
The stars in their courses,
And on the far shores around the pole
The ocean takes its flock of waves to graze.
I want to march with the winds,
With the worlds, with the firmaments!"
And God replied: "March!"^q

Thus is America divinely brought forth.

This is not the place to deal with the
history or historical commemoration of
Columbus or of the Discovery of America.
Such material would be much more
extensive in both Portugal and Brazil.
But here we are concerned only with
literature on this theme which, as we
have seen, is scanty, for the reasons
already given.

In conclusion, a monograph of Vicente
Licínio de Cardoso may be recalled,
because of the standing of the author.
It is an essay, with a historical tinge.

"Columbus, for his defects and his good qualities, the value of his mistakes and his work, his tenacity and his boldness, his faith and his courage, is the most compelling figure of his age, the very incarnation of the most brilliant Latin genius of the time: an Italian of humble origin, who boldly assimilated the Portuguese science of navigation, and most daringly accomplished a great feat in the service of the religious vigor of Spain." "I leave it to the reader to choose the most pleasing among these three types of personality: The Columbus of Vignaud, the great navigator who discovered America by virtue of having attempted it, after being informed by anonymous sailors of the possibility of islands or lands west of the Azores; the Columbus of Ruge, the great Genoese of immortal fame, who audaciously carried into effect the project of Toscanelli, opening up to man new world panoramas; and finally, the humble weaver of Genoa, paltry pupil of the Portuguese navigators, who discovered for

Spain, purely by a miracle, by chance, and all unwittingly, something which was no novelty for Portugal." The essay concludes: "As for myself, like Gafferel, HARRISSE, Oliveira Martins, and Vignaud, I give credit to the possibility that some Portuguese mariners, in some of their own voyages from the Azores, might have reached American shores before Columbus. . . . Nevertheless, Columbus was a genius, who went on his own account. . . ." ⁵

Columbus had the intention, the determination, of realizing his aspiration.

An English proverb says that nothing succeeds like success. Before his voyage Columbus was discussed and no one wished to aid him; afterwards, he was imprisoned and another's name given to his discovery.

But no matter; he is remembered and commemorated. America was the most beautiful reality of the world . . . and Columbus links the dream and the reality.

⁵ V. L. Cardoso, "Colombo," *Rio de Janeiro, 1924*, p. 13.

PORTUGUESE QUOTATIONS

^a Jardim da Europa à beira-mar plantado. . . .

Eu irei engolfado no Oceano,
Saudar o berço aonde nasce a Aurora.

^b O Magalhães nos feitos com verdade
Português, porém não na lealdade.

—CAMÕES, *Lus.*, X, 140.

^c Eu canto o Genovês, de Urania aluno
Da inveja, e dos infernos perseguido.
O nauta, que do Tejo foi tão longe
Desencantar os indicos tesouros. . . .

• Nos verdes campos dos sertões brasileiros
Longo tamanduá deitado apara
Do tigre astuto o calculado bote,
E abraçando-o lhe enterra pelo dorso
Com as unhas a morte. . . .

^d Rainha e rei que vos sentais num trono
Resplendente de glória! É livre a estrada
Que vos franquea a mão do Onipotente;
Avante, pois, e o mundo será vosso.
Ah! um baixel, um só baixel vos peço!
Levarei vosso nome aos fins da terra;
Buscarei novo ceo, novo hemisfério
Onde retumbe deste dia a fama,
E o cetro vosso se estendendo impere.

^e Sim, excelsa Rainha, aquela Dama
Por quem venceu meu braço o invicto Cadix,
Esse anjo que nas asas do mistério
Subiu ao céu da glória, és tu Senhora!
Perdôa-me a ousadia, eu to suplico
Não foi minha a vitória, não, de certo!
Veda a natureza feito igual a um braço
Que há nove lustros só combate azares.
Foi a força de Deus que no certame
Minha lança brandiu, foi essa força
Que em meu corpo infundiu poder tão grande!
Mas se é tua esta glória, inda te resta
Outra glória maior além dos mares.

^e E enquanto o Português desprende as velas
Sem a terra se quer perder de vista,

Nessas terras que eu vejo, eu só no mundo
Onde da Cruz a par teu cetro augusto
Em breve plantarei com pasmo do orbe.
Entre dous mundos firmarei teu trono;
Terá por alcatifa o imenso oceano,
E por ponte o teu trono no universo!
Uma nave, senhora, o mais já tenho;
Se uma nave me dás, dar-te-ei um mundo.

^k Como um sol que estalasse em noite horrenda
De flamante poeira enchendo o espaço,
Assim estalará da França o trono
Enchendo a Europa de aversoras luzes.

ⁱ Sobre rastos de sangue, ao estampido
Dos tronos, do trote e tiros das descargas
Hão de evadir-se os reis, deixando os sólios
Á mercê de um soldado ambicioso,
No sarilho das armas elevado
Á glória imperial. Gênio sublime!

^j Profuga a estirpe de João Segundo
Aqui buscando asilo. . . .

^k Aflige-me o futuro; e novo Imperio
Protegido da Cruz de dela filho
Mais que tudo, Colombo, me atormenta.

^l Raça de Luso, medrará cos tempos
Se aos paternos erros der contraste
E á minha influência opor virtudes.

^m Tal Império há de ser. . . .

ⁿ Perdôa-me, Colombo, se do engenho
A imperícia excedeu o amor do vate. . . .

^o Aos pés do trono do brasilio padre
Pedro Segundo, Defensor Perpétuo
Que as palmas cinge no Uruguai colhidas.

^p As belas plagas da querida patria.

^q Talhado para as grandezas,
P'ra crescer, crear, subir,
O Novo Mundo nos músculos
Sente a seiva do porvir.
—Estatuário de colossos—
Cançado d'outros esboços
Disse um dia Jehová:
"Vai, Colombo, abre a cortina
"Da minha eterna oficina. . . .
"Tira a América de lá."

Molhado inda do dilúvio,
Qual Tritão descomunal,
O continente desperta
No concerto universal.
Dos oceanos em tropa
Um—traz-lhe as artes da Europa,
Outro—as bagas de Ceilão. . . .
E os Andes pretificados,
Como braços levantados,
Lhe apontam para a amplidão.

Olhando em torno então brada:
"Tudo marcha! . . . O grande Deus!
"As cataratas—p'ra terra,
"As estrelas—para os céus
"Lá, do polo sobre plagas,
"O seu rebanho de vagas
"Vai o mar apascentar. . . .
"Eu quero marchar com os ventos,
"Com os mundos . . . co'os firmamentos!!!"
E Deus responde—"Marchar!"



one of the three caravels. It was the voice of the sailor Rodrigo de Triana, heralding land; and it was the end of the mortal anxieties the daring navigator's eighty-eight companions had suffered during the course of a dramatic voyage on unknown waters.

The little island of the Bahamas where Columbus landed was called Guanahaní in the language of the Arawak tribe inhabiting it. He took possession in the name of Their Catholic Majesties of Castile and Aragon and named it San Salvador (today it is known also as Watlings Island). He brought some Indians on board his ship, and by gestures they informed him that there was land to the southwest, to the northwest and to the southeast, thus indicating the Greater Antilles and Florida.

On October 26 Columbus discovered Cuba, which he called Juana in honor of the young Infante Juan, heir of Ferdinand and Isabella. He was sailing along the northern coast of that island, toward the west, when he thought he understood his Arawak guides to tell him of a great land lying to the east, which they called, in their language, Haiti, Bohío, or Quisqueya. They spoke so excitedly of that mysterious land that Columbus, influenced by their cries and gestures, turned his fleet eastward. On December 5, the *Santa María*, *Pinta*, and *Niña* dropped anchor in the beautiful bay that the Discoverer named Saint Nicolas.

When, on that limpid December morn, he saw the blue mountain masses rising behind the high terraces around the bay, Columbus, dazzled by the splendor of the sun, the sky, and the sea, could not contain the enthusiasm filling his heart. He cried, "It is a marvel!"

That marvel was Haiti.

A few days later he disembarked on that happy land and there planted the Cross of

Christ. Thus the first Catholic ceremony held in America was celebrated, making Haiti the eldest offspring of the Christian Church in the New World.

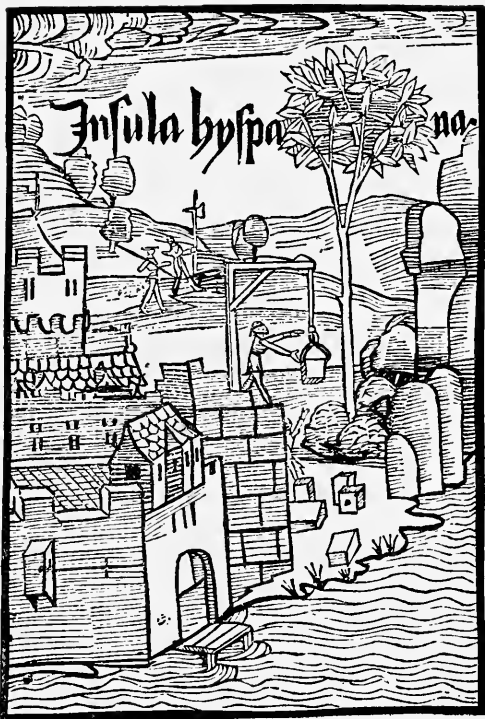
Sailing next along the northern coast of Haiti, Columbus reached the bay where Cap-Haïtien now stands. Since one of his boats, the *Santa María*, was shipwrecked on December 24, he secured permission from the Indian chieftain, Chief Guacanagarí, to land on the beach—that of Petite-Anse—and there built a fortress that he called La Navidad. He left thirty Spaniards in that fort and departed for Spain on January 11, 1493 in order to make his wonderful discovery known to Europe. Thus the Republic of Haiti is proud to possess the site of the first, although short-



Courtesy of Library of Congress

AN IMAGINARY VIEW OF HISPANIOLA

A woodcut from a book published at Basel in 1494, containing a drama by Verardus and a reprint of a letter by Columbus.



Courtesy of Library of Congress

ANOTHER VIEW OF HISPANIOLA

This woodcut, from the same book, shows a fort in process of construction.

lived, European settlement on the American continent. A monument should be erected on the beach of Petite-Anse to mark the cradle of the New World.

It is that memorable event which, as a Haitian delegate, I recalled on the night of December 24, 1938 when the delegations of the twenty-one American Republics were met in the large hall of the Peruvian Chamber of Deputies to hear the reading of the Declaration of the Principles of the Solidarity of the Americas, called "The Declaration of Lima," and the Declaration of American Principles. These are the few and simple remarks I made on that solemn occasion:

I shall say only a few words to confirm the Republic of Haiti's sincere, complete, and enthusiastic adherence to these Declarations.

Just 446 years ago tonight Christopher Columbus, after the loss of one of his caravels, the *Santa María*, was authorized by Chief Guacanagari to found on the shores of Haiti, near the present city of Cap-Haïtien, the first European settlement in the New World. To the fort that he built with the wreckage from his ship he gave the name La Navidad, that is to say, Christmas.

On this Christmas Eve, which finds us meeting in this palace of friendship and peace, we hope that these two declarations, adopted at a time when our Christian civilization is threatened with a cruel shipwreck, will mark the birth of a new world. We hope, with ardent faith, that they will offer an insuperable barrier to doctrines of hate and violence and will place at the disposition of our three Americas a sure procedure, capable of guaranteeing them a lasting peace founded on the principle of international solidarity and fraternity among men without distinction of race, religion, or political ideology.

What did the Declarations signed at Lima say? The Declaration of American Principles stated in its preamble, "... Each State is interested in the preservation of world order under law, in peace with justice, and in the social and economic welfare of mankind." It therefore proclaims:

The intervention of any State in the internal or external affairs of another is inadmissible.

All differences of any international character should be settled by peaceful means.

The use of force as an instrument of national or international policy is proscribed.

Relations between States should be governed by the precepts of international law.

Respect for and the faithful observance of treaties constitute the indispensable rule for the development of peaceful relations between States, and treaties can only be revised by agreement of the contracting parties.

Peaceful collaboration between representatives of the various States and the development of intellectual interchange among their peoples is conducive to an understanding by each of the problems of the other as well as of problems common to all, and makes more readily possible the peaceful adjustment of international controversies.

Economic reconstruction contributes to national and international well-being, as well as to peace among nations.

International cooperation is a necessary condition to the maintenance of the aforementioned principles.

What do the totalitarian powers oppose to these principles of individual liberty, racial equality, human fraternity, international solidarity, and social justice extolled by the Pan American Union?

Germany replies through her theorists and politicians.

The fundamental principle of the German system is world hegemony. "We belong to the race of Thor and we desire to inherit his empire," wrote Felix Dahn in his *Deutsche Geschichte in Liedern*. J. L. Reimer is more explicit: "We want to and we must create a Pan Germanic Empire, a world Empire under German hegemony. The Pan Germanic Empire should replace the cosmopolitan world State, which is a Utopia." What will be the lot of the little nations in this empire? "The destiny of great nations," states Professor Oncken of Heidelberg, "is so important and exalted that they will be forced to trample upon the autonomy of small nations, not large enough to protect themselves." In a proclamation of June 1915 William II said proudly, "Greater Germany must one day dominate all Europe." And Tannenberg, in *Gross Deutschland*, surpassed that in these terms: "The German people must control Central Africa, Asia Minor, the Malayan Archipelago, and finally, the southern half of South America."

By what means will German domination be established in the world? Ernst Hasse points that out to us in his *Deutsche Politik*: "The little nations will disappear. They will necessarily be absorbed by their stronger neighbors. This redistribution will naturally mean hard wars. But to make our Greater Germany a reality we must not shrink from a struggle to the death." To that Marshal von Hässler adds, according



Courtesy of Library of Congress

A 1494 PICTORIAL MAP

Some West Indian islands were represented in this rude map (also from the Verardus).

to Professor Kulm of Berlin: "German civilization must raise temples on mountains of corpses, on seas of tears, on the rattle of many deaths."

These are not empty words. Hitler, the leader in the theory and execution of Pan Germanism, is putting that horrible doctrine into practice. He himself gave racial superiority, based on the myth of blood purity, a sanguinary prominence by the unmerciful treatment he has inflicted on Jews, on Poles, and on all nations that have fallen under his heel. The Jews are the most hateful in his eyes because they have "tried craftily to instill in the mind of nations the theory of the equality of man." But, says Hitler, "it is criminal folly to train a Negro, who by his origin is *half ape*, until he may be taken for a lawyer, a pro-

quas habet Taprobana gemis et elephanti: huius referta Crisana Argireum au-
ro et argento fecundas. Cuius quoque arborescens solus nunquam carentem ba-
bet et summos Cingeni et Indum et Ypaneni illustres Indos. Terra
Indie et auoni spiritu saluberrima et anno bis metit fruges vice hyemis
et aestivae patitur. Ugnit autem tincti coloris homines. elephantes in
gentes. Monoceros bestiam. Ystyracum autem. Ebenus quoque lignum. et plu-
res species aromaticas. Eleitici et ebur lapides preciosos plurimos. Ibi
sunt et montes auri quos auri propter dracones et griffes ac unmeso
rum hominum monstrum impossibile est. Hec India valde magna est. Hanc
secundum plurimum sexto naturalium ipsa sola est tertia pars habitabi-
lis et habet gentes centum. xviii. Et toto cum ipse dicat Europae esse ma-
iorem Asia non ibi includit Indiam sub ea. Dico igitur quod frons Indie
meridianaus peltitur ad tropicum Capricorni propter regionem Partha-
lis et terrarum vicinarum quas ambit brachium maris magni descentis
a mari oceano quod est inter Indiam et Thyspantiam inferiorem seu Africam
de quo supra tactum est. Meridiana vero latus Indie descendit a tropi-
co Capricorni et secat equinotialem circulum apud montem Adalci. et regi-
ones et conterminas. et transit per Syenem que nunc Ilyrin vocatur. Hanc
in libro cursuum planetarii dicitur quod duplex est Syene. una sub solsti-
tio de qua superius. Alia sub equinotiali circulo de qua nunc est sermo.
et hec est civitas Ilyrin. quam ponit mathematici in medio habitatio-
nis equinotialis. Terrae requiritur ad orientem et occidentem et tunc
dic. unde patet salitra cunctisam vulgaris opinionis ponenda Hierusale
in medio terre iuxta illud psalmi. Operatus est salutem in medio terre.
quia loquendo simpliciter non est in medio terre habitabilis ut ostendit
ei que dicta sunt sed est quasi in medio climatum sicut supra dictum est
cui de climatibus ageretur.

De mirabilibus Indie. Ca. xvi.
X premixtis manifestum est quod magna est India in quantitate. Sed ex
sequentiis patet quod ipsa non est minor in mirabilium varietate. Nam
in ea sicut patet altissime in montibus quorum sunt plerique duorum cubitorum
homines quibus bellum est contra grues quod tertio anno parit occano teneant.
Ipsos hos crescit piper colore quidem albo sed tamen serpentium qui ibi
habitant incendio nigredinem trahit. Sunt ibi dracones. xii. cubitos longi
qui bellat contra griffes. et corpora leonum habet aliaque et ungues pferunt
aquilae. Sunt ibi hygrotes et dragmani qui vltro in igne amore alter al-
terius in fumis prociuntur. Sunt et ibi Barbari qui parentes coctores
senio solent macrare. et eorum carnes ad epulandum parat. Ampius in
dicatur qui hoc facere negat. Sunt et alii qui pisces crudos comunt et sal
sum mare bibunt. Sunt ibi quendam hominum monstra ut qui aduersas
habent plantas. et octonos in pedibus digitos. Alii qui cantina ca-
pita habent quibus vestis est peltis pecudum. et vox latratus canum.

Indie in medio terre
Indie in medio terre
Indie in medio terre

Indie in medio terre
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fessor, a minister, or even a tenor. That is merely a question of the training of a dog, not of scientific culture. . . . A State which, at a time of racial contamination, jealously guards the preservation of the best elements of its own race must some day become master of the earth."

It is that horrible and inhuman doctrine of world hegemony, of racial hatred, and of contempt for the right of individuals and nations that the totalitarian powers call the New World Order. It is against that doctrine that President Roosevelt has so often protested, particularly in his admirable address of October 12, 1940, delivered at Dayton, Ohio, for all the American nations defending the common ideal of democratic liberty, equality, and solidarity.

He said in part:

The Americas have excelled in the adventure of many races living together in harmony. In the wake of the discoverers came the first settlers, the first refugees from Europe. They came to plough new fields, build new homes, establish a new society in a new world. Later they fought for liberty. . . . They formed, here in the Western Hemisphere, a new human reservoir, and into it have poured the blood, the culture, the traditions of all the races and peoples of the earth. . . . "Divide and conquer" has been the battle cry of

the totalitarian powers in their war against the democracies. It has succeeded on the continent of Europe for the moment. On our continents it will fail. . . . Their propaganda repeats and repeats that democracy is a decadent form of government. They tell us that our old democratic ideal, our old traditions of civil liberties are things of the past. We reject this thought. We say that *we* are the future.

Forced to enter the bloody struggle because of the criminal policy and treachery of the totalitarian powers, the Americas are putting all their energy into winning not only the war but the peace. For the Americas are *the future* and they want to organize *the future of the world* according to the lofty principles that they have adopted at all their Conferences and that have been incorporated in the Atlantic Charter and the Declaration of the United Nations.

Negro by origin, heir of the French Revolution, eldest child of the Church in America, pioneer of Pan Americanism with Alexandre Pétion and Bolívar, Haiti swears to remain faithful to those sacred principles of liberty, equality, justice, and solidarity which constitute the structure of our civilization and for which her sons have shed their blood in the past and are ready to shed it in the present.



Columbus in Hispaniola

VIRGILIO DÍAZ ORDÓÑEZ

Rector, University of Santo Domingo

"I say to Don Diego, my son, and direct, that when he receives sufficient revenue from the said Majorat and inheritance, that he shall maintain three Chaplains in a chapel which he shall have builded, who shall say three masses each day, one to the honour of the Holy Trinity, another to the Conception of our Lady, and the other for the souls of all the faithful dead, and for my soul and the souls of my father and mother and wife. And if his fortune is sufficient he may make the said chapel honourable, and increase the orisons and prayers for the Honour of the Holy Trinity, and if this can be in the island of Española, which God gave me miraculously, I would be glad that it might be yonder, where I invoked it, which is in the Vega that is called La Concepción."

(From the Testament and Codicil of the Admiral Don Christopher Columbus, Executed in Valladolid, May 19, 1506.)¹

HISPANIOLA, which appeared like a bride in the path of the Great Admiral, was to him the isle of love and grief.

Their first exciting meeting took place on December 5, 1492, hardly two months after the miraculous Discovery, while the Old World was still in ignorance of the New. Thus this meeting was enhanced by the charm of the surreptitious, the secret, the mysterious.

According to the *History of Santo Domingo* written by the eminent José Gabriel García, Columbus was in Hispaniola, which he himself named, for the following periods: December 5, 1492 to January 16, 1493; November 22, 1493 to April 24, 1494; September 29, 1494 to March 10, 1496; August 30, 1498 to October 1, 1500; and August 13, 1504 to September 12 of the same year.

Four voyages were made by the Discoverer to the New World, and five times

The Island of La Española (Spanish Isle), so named by Columbus, is now called Hispaniola in English. It is divided between the Dominican Republic and the Republic of Haiti.

¹ John Boyd Thacher, "Christopher Columbus," Vol. III, p. 659. G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1904.

he stayed in his favorite island. In the course of the almost twelve years between the Discovery on October 12, 1492, and the day when he began his last voyage back to Spain, Columbus passed nearly four years in Hispaniola. No spot discovered by him had the privilege of holding him so often and so long.

It was on his fourth and last voyage to the New World that unkind destiny imposed upon him a great sorrow. When he arrived on June 30, 1502, at the mouth of the Ozama, near the city of Santo Domingo, Comendador Don Nicolás de Ovando forbade him to set foot on the island he loved so dearly. How deep the pain Columbus must have suffered! Perhaps it was even sharper than the unhappiness caused him on his preceding voyage when the dictatorial Bobadilla affronted him by throwing him into chains.

About two years later, however, Columbus returned, and it was on September 12, 1504, that his visionary gaze dwelt for the last time on the isle of his love and grief. This was the moment of his great farewell.



THE CATHEDRAL, CIUDAD TRUJILLO

In this cathedral, the first metropolitan see in the New World, rest the remains of Columbus.

Unmerited misfortune had turned the taste of glory to dust and ashes in his mouth. In history this is the final adieu in the great tragic romance that united a man and a continent; it might well have been thought that Columbus was beginning, with this sorrowful return to Spain, his last voyage and a perpetual absence. But the Great Discoverer was still to make another journey: a posthumous one, when his body, freed from a burdensome but glorious life, crossed the tempestuous ocean to sleep the sleep of immortality in his favorite Hispaniola.

This posthumous voyage, the majority of historians agree, took place in 1536, thirty years after Columbus had given up

to a pitying God the soul that pitiless men had so cruelly tormented. This was, in truth, the last journey of the Great Admiral.

But the unrest that pursued him in life gave him no respite in death. In 1795, when Spain, by the Treaty of Basel, ceded the colony of Santo Domingo to France, permission was sought by the Spaniards to move the ashes of the Discoverer to Cuba. The Spanish authorities proceeded to exhume the Great Admiral's remains, and in their haste they confused the vault containing them with another, and took to Habana, whence they were carried to Seville, bones that are almost certainly those of Diego Columbus, the Discoverer's son.

On September 10, 1877, a miraculous find, in which the saintly Presbyter and Canon Don Francisco Xavier Billini was the agent of Providence, proved that Columbus's true remains were still where they had been interred in 1536. Thus the Great Admiral's desire, as expressed in his will, has been complied with in spite of many impediments, for a higher Power, which shapes its designs and ends regardless of human inclinations, decreed that the Discoverer should rest throughout eternity, as he himself wished, in the soil of Hispaniola.

The Dominican Republic has a profound veneration for Columbus and everything related to him. His interment in our country we consider a boon that he bestowed

on us after death, as if his love for Hispaniola endured even after life was over.

His ashes now repose under an impressive monument of bronze and marble, in the nave of the Lesser Basilica of Santa María, the ancient Cathedral of Santo Domingo, the first metropolitan see of the New World, whose construction was begun in 1514 and completed in 1540. In the shadow of this famous sixteenth-century monument of Spanish colonial architecture, is Columbus Square, in the center of which rises the bronze statue of the Discoverer. It may be by one of those happy coincidences often found in the history of the elect that this figure of the Great Admiral has a hand outstretched to the northwest, as if, in glorious silence, he were still



Fotografía Mañón

COLUMBUS SQUARE, CIUDAD TRUJILLO

The Discoverer seems to be pointing towards San Salvador, the island sighted on October 12, 1492.

pointing towards the island of San Salvador, or Guanahaní, the scene of the miraculous Discovery. Or it may be that even from realms beyond the grave he is still urgently indicating to men and nations mysterious courses for them to follow.

The Dominican nation has expressed its respect and love to the Great Discoverer not only by the tributes already mentioned but also by giving his name, like a glorious pennon, to the longest and most historic street in its capital. The most ancient thoroughfare in this old city—in fact, the first street in the Western Hemisphere—is that running parallel to the Ozama, from north to south. If this street could talk, it might soliloquize thus:

“This is not a story about people. I am a street, the oldest in the most ancient American capital. I have felt the passage of

many things and I preserve innumerable traces: of caciques, conquistadors, admirals, governors, pirates, centuries, civilizations. My length can be measured only in hundreds of years.

“My ancestry is Carib. Many stars and perhaps some cacique presided over my birth. I must have been born by the pressure of bare feet, supporting strong dark free men, wearing feathers in their hair. Then I was only a narrow little path over which men passed in single file, like living beads on a thick thread. Winding merrily, I understood perfectly how to play hide and seek; and I was ready at any time to conceal myself with a veil of bushes and plants.

“I have a strong brother, much older than I: the River. It was always a pleasure to me to feel him near, to hear him sing, to stretch myself parallel to him



E TOWER OF
HOMAGE



THE GATE OF SAN DIEGO

towards the sea. I go with him, of course, no farther than the coast. He launches himself into the waves like an old sailor, and I suspect that for thousands of years he has been carrying on some idyll with the nereids of Father Caribbean. 'Men are like that!' I say discreetly to myself; but sometimes I, completely innocent in the affair, am frightened by the violence with which the old turbulent Sea flings his raging foam at me over the rocks of the coast.

"It was this brother who brought me, centuries ago, a strange, complicated and perturbing gift. From the other bank, all by himself, he carried on his stout back a whole colonial city. My leisure was much diminished. Throngs of soldiers and their arms, many carven stones and new buildings deeply stirred my curiosity. First people began to straighten me as one

would a twisted wire, until I became stiff and solemn, like a sword stretched on the ground. Until then I had believed that I had just as much right as my brother the river to curve as I wished in my smiling and innocent wanderings.

"Heavy buildings, which I guessed from the first were erected on purpose to restrain me, as if it were feared I should overflow, began to rise on my flanks, still shrouded by a thick vesture of wild plants.

"Soon other streets were born of me. They all went westward, as if fleeing from my brother. At first there were five, and I fancied that I was the keyboard of an enormous stringed instrument to which the voice of Time might chant the song of centuries. But I was not really sure that those streets were my offspring. Sometimes it seemed rather that they died in me, as rivers die in the sea, and then I felt

greater, wider, more mysterious and profound.

"By then I was straight and handsome. On the esplanade that was widened towards the sea, there was raised, to the alarm and fear of pirates and corsairs, the stone mass of the Tower of Homage. Because of this I was called Street of the Fortress.

"Of those times I keep one anguished memory: all my companions and I were imprisoned in a stoutly walled enclosure. But there was balm for my pain in the fact that there was constructed, especially for me, a great gate that opened the walls and let me go down to the banks of the river. And how cordial was my reception or my farewell as I went forward to receive the ships and caravels, to greet them or to bid them godspeed! Since then, each day, I look through that gate to see the sunrise.

"It may be that I am guilty of the sin of pridefulness, but as time has gone on I have begun to believe that I am the receptacle into which history has poured mementoes of exalted ancestry; that I am a repository of great exploits, an ark of relics or jewels of the colonial period. Among these the most precious, diamonds whose keen edges have indelibly cut my name on Time's eternal crystal, are the Tower of Homage, the House of the Jesuits, the Palace of the Captains General, the Chapel of Los Remedios, the Sundial, the Gate of San Diego, and the Castle of Diego Columbus, my quick descent toward which is but a token of my own reverence before that seignorial palace.

"The chats with my companions, in which I indulge, as between comrades, at all my crossroads, cover four centuries. That is how I have learned the history of other streets which I have never met and with which I have no other personal acquaintance than the bit of dust or clay brought from them to me by the hoofs of animals, the wheels of vehicles, or the boots of pedestrians. This kind of interchange with my distant companions is continuous and cordial. Through my intimate friends I have learned many things. From their tales thick volumes of history could be written.

"I was much surprised one day when a new street unexpectedly joined me. 'But how is this?' I said to myself. 'Surely I have known you well, for a long, long time!' It was only that it had acquired a new and resplendent name. At first the names of my companions were mystic, very Catholic, and very characteristic of the spirit that animated colonial times. Afterwards the names of the saints were changed for others that commemorated political events and dates, and even the names of men. I myself have had more than one name. The most romantic one, I think, was the Street of the Ladies,



THE HOUSE OF THE JESUITS



THE PALACE OF DIEGO COLUMBUS

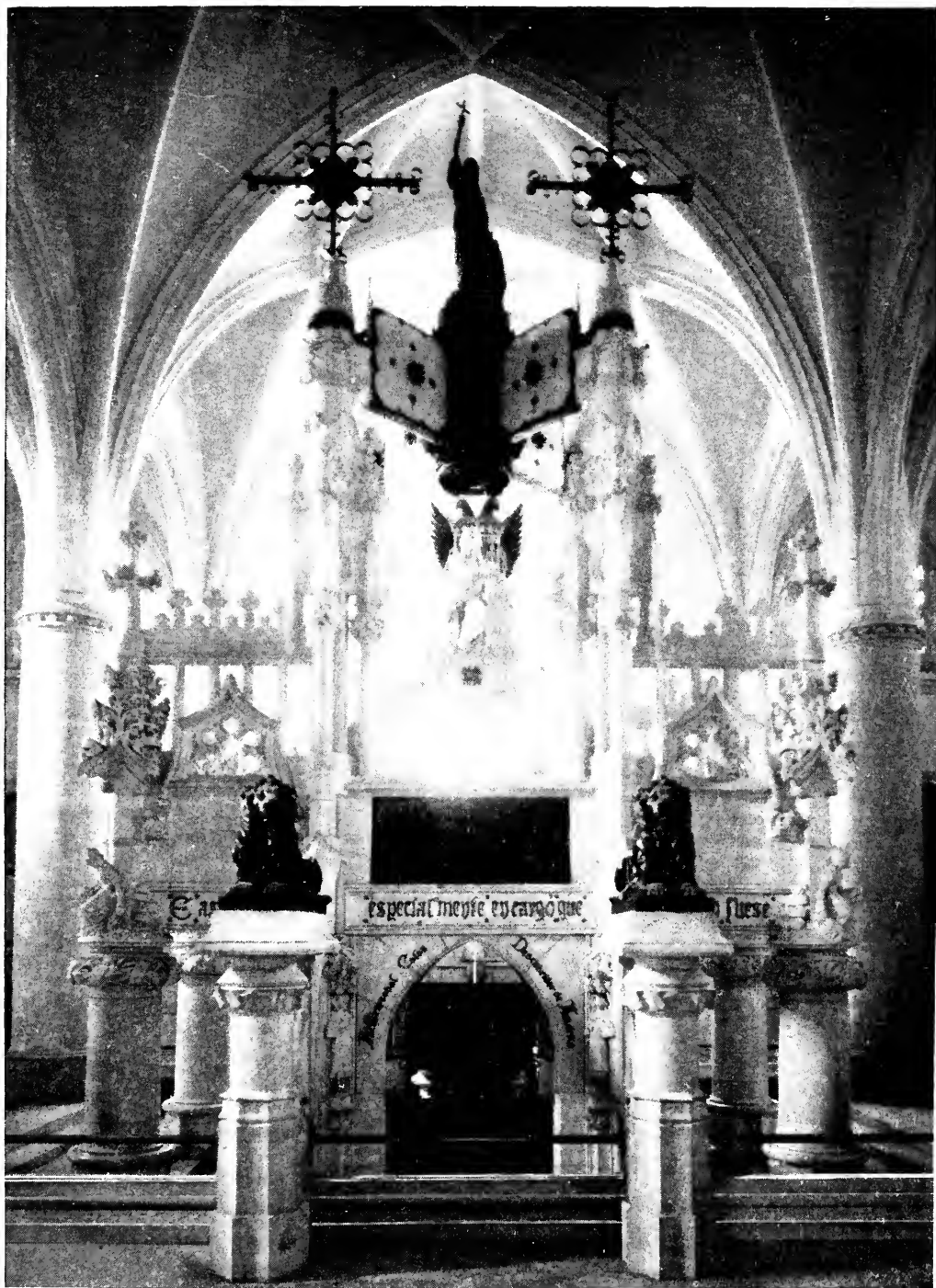
Among the most imposing colonial remains in Ciudad Trujillo (formerly Santo Domingo), the oldest city in the Americas, are the walls of the palace built by Columbus's son when he was governor of the island of Hispaniola.

which I bore with pride for a long time and which I acquired as a badge of honor for so graciously and hospitably receiving and lodging the fair ladies of the court of the Vicereine Doña María de Toledo y Rojas, of the house of Alba. In those times my aspect became majestic, somewhat austere, and tinged with true nobility; but despite that, my treatment of my companions was no less unassuming and cordial than before. And that, I am sure, was my greatest mark of nobility.

"With what respectful devotion, as if paying homage, I felt the passage of the romantic court! How all my little pools drank in the brilliance of the stars and with what emotion I bathed in the moon's

light, as if to adorn myself and give me a spiritual kinship with the light and musical kiss of Tirso de Molina's verses!

"Then another name was given me which I know how to wear with dignity and pride: the name of Columbus. And, faith, I think I do not wear it badly. I am like a river bed through which the history of America majestically flows. My soul is both very old and very young: submerged in the past, afloat in the present, and ready to be profoundly immersed in the future. Stretching from north to south, it might be said that I am born at the feet of Polaris, whence I go forward, like a bridge over the Infinite, in search of the southern con-



THE TOMB OF COLUMBUS

This monument of marble and bronze rises in the Cathedral of Ciudad Trujillo over the tomb of Columbus, who asked in his will to be buried in Hispaniola.

stellations, where Canopus would be the brightest jewel in my diadem and the Southern Cross my most splendid decoration. Going forth across the ocean, Columbus found lands, like constellations fallen into the sea.

"I am sentimental. At the passing of funeral cortèges, I join in the mourning of others with the profound silence of by-gone centuries. A thousand memories pass over me in waves of tenderness, as thoughts are reflected on a pensive brow. I recall the sorrowful processions of condemned men passing over me, the Way of Death; they went with uncertain faltering steps, as if the dark and powerful wings of the Great Mystery were already bearing them away. There comes to me through the years, too, the mystic chime of convent bells, filling the air with tremulous song. The prints of bare feet and worn shoes give me a democratic stamp which I silently accept with the same kindliness with which I once welcomed the sonorous footsteps of the aristocracy.

"I am like an epic. The shadows of many flags, raised between me and the sun of liberty, have fallen on my pavement. The clash of different allegiances has loosed over me, like the swift rush of falling leaves, the clarion cry of attack, the shout of alarm, the thunder of cannon, the hurried tread of marching men, the stamp of horses' feet and, at times, the flight of banners in defeat. The boots of Sir Francis Drake resounded like sharp blows on my astonished face, but years later, when the grandsons of the pirate came, they were quickly repulsed.

"Today I think with longing of how I used to look long ago. The memory of my uneven sidewalks, my plateresque porticoes, my grilled colonial windows, fills my soul with a nostalgia that seems not so much my own as the sentimental heritage of races and of centuries.

"The brusque and strenuous present has rubbed down my golden patina. The moon and stars of my early days, competing now with electric lights, shine above me with a timid glow. Even those cannon at the gates which, half buried in the earth with their muzzles pointing downward as if determined to fire a salvo over the tomb of my past centuries, have disappeared.

"My white surface has become acquainted with that municipal bituminous cosmetic that gives modern streets their black luster. Swift pneumatic tires leave imprints on me that look like the cast-off skins of fleeing serpents.

"And sometimes, across my strip of blue sky, an airplane passes. . . .

"So today, beneath my beloved flag with the cross which I copy in my own heart by intersecting with another famous street, with my whole length ever open to Time's immemorial current, I stretch myself out to dream and wait, 'very ancient and very modern,' as a verse of Darío says."

The unceasing homage that the Dominican Republic pays to the Discoverer draws its nourishment from the immortality of that illustrious personage. This devotion is as perpetual as the memory of Columbus's fame.

In this island was originated the magnificent project of erecting a memorial lighthouse to the memory of the Great Navigator. After a world competition that culminated in the decision adopted at Rio de Janeiro, plans were accepted for a monument to be built in the form of a gigantic recumbent cross. This, in addition to being a symbol of faith, of sacrifice, and of martyrdom, will express the continent-wide sentiments of the New World, which in spirit lovingly extends its open arms, like a cross, toward all humanity.

The project for the construction of this lighthouse monument has been approved

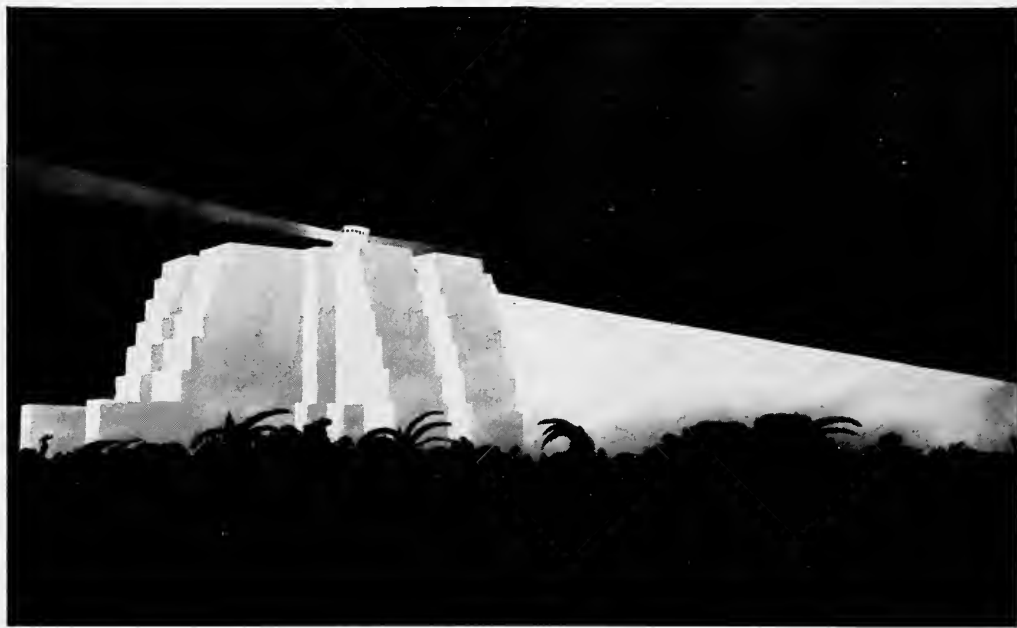
by all the nations of America and the gratitude of our peoples will soon be fittingly embodied in this well deserved tribute.

The foremost worker for the execution of this project in the Dominican Republic is President Trujillo Molina, who has expressed at Pan American conferences and congresses his fervent enthusiasm for the accomplishment of this enterprise which will honor both the Great Admiral and the nations living in the lands he discovered. The imposing structure of the Memorial Lighthouse will rise on the same site on which the capital of the colony was founded in 1496. It was not until 1502 that the city, which today bears the name of Ciudad Trujillo, was transferred to the western bank of the Ozama River. From an

eminence, the lighthouse will send its beams aloft, as the faith of the Great Admiral carried his fervent prayers heavenward.

When this structure is finished, all America will feel in its spirit that satisfying sense of comfort which pervades the soul when an act of gratitude and love has been performed. As long as the work is undone, as long as the injustice of the continent's having received a name other than that of the Discoverer is not balanced by the justice of consecrating this monument to his memory, the weight of an unfulfilled duty will rest heavily upon the conscience of America.

In the meantime, Hispaniola continues through the centuries to live in the reflected glory of the Admiral and his serene and shining immortality.



COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIGHTHOUSE

The design for the lighthouse to be erected in the Dominican Republic has the form of a huge recumbent cross.

The Destiny of America

ALFONSO REYES

AFTER America was discovered, what should be done with it? Over all conquests of matter the mind is supreme. Portugal and Spain were roused by the discoveries, which soon took on an evangelical character. The medieval crusades were succeeded by the American crusade, and Pope Alexander divided between the two monarchies the lands already found and to be found. From this moment America—whatever the contingencies and errors of history—commenced to take form before the eyes of humanity as a place where justice might be more nearly equal, liberty better understood, happiness more complete and shared by more of the people—in other words, a longed-for Republic, a Utopia.

The idea of America was impressive to the outstanding Europeans of that time. How many dreams blossomed forth! As soon as America, like a nereid, lifted her head, there was an almost overwhelming production of Utopian tales. The humanists revived political discussion after the manner of Plato and, their thoughts fixed on America, began to dream of a more fortunate humanity. Dogmatism was crushed by the sight of new customs. The possibility of other modes of civilization closer to the earth was conceived and the naked philosopher of Peter Martyr prepared the way for the good savage of Rousseau, as full of natural virtue as a fruit is of juice. American exoticism, which Chinard, Dermenghem, and others

A portion of the address delivered, when the prizes in the architectural competition for the design of the Columbus Memorial Lighthouse were awarded at Rio de Janeiro, by a distinguished Mexican writer, then Ambassador of his country to Brazil.

had carefully studied, seasoned literature with a new flavor. Unlike oriental exoticism, which always limited itself to the picturesque, this American exoticism had a moral purpose; that is, European literature sought to prove by means of America an *a priori* conception—the age of gold of the ancients, the state of natural innocence, without acknowledging the heretical aspect of this notion. Who amongst the most noble figures of European thought could escape the vision of America? America left its mark on Erasmus, on Thomas More, Rabelais, Tasso, Montaigne, Bacon, and Tomaso Campanella. If Juan Ponce de León dreamed of finding a fountain of eternal youth in Florida, the philosophers asked of the New World a stimulus for the political perfecting of men. Such is the true American tradition, which it is our duty to emphasize.

The testimony of Montaigne is singularly impressive. In his soul the drama of America was played to the accompaniment of the solemn music of thoughts that still move us. Montaigne recognized that the mere contrast between the things of the Old and the New World awakened in him that comprehension of all doctrines which Bacon and Shakespeare were to learn of him, his forgiving spirit, his charity.

During the youth of Montaigne America was becoming larger day by day, and gravitation toward America seemed to raise him above the moral level of his time. He read eagerly the stories of the chroniclers and, furthermore, as an official at Bordeaux, he saw and wondered at the

products and merchandise imported from the generous new land. In addition, one of his servants had lived ten years in Brazil and recounted to him the customs of the New World. Always disposed to entertain a paradox, Montaigne wondered whether after all civilization were not an immense aberrance, if the American man, "the beautiful nude Inca and the Mexican clad in feathers," as Góngora said, were not nearer the Creator, if customs did not have only a relative basis. And he concluded by describing the refinement and the art of the Edenlike towns of the Tupí-Guaraní. Montaigne said to himself that those Indians were cannibals, but questioned whether eating one's fellow beings were not preferable to enslaving and exploiting them as the civilized Europeans exploited nine-tenths of humanity. Although America tortured its prisoners of war, Europe, Montaigne thought, inflicted more tortures in the name of religion and of justice. And here you see, induced by contact with America, the mind of a representative European originating the preliminary outlines of the boldest and most advanced viewpoints of our own times. This disagreement with the errors of European thought went on acquiring more strength. This atmosphere permeated Protestantism and Puritanism and, much more, Quakerism, which finally took refuge in America. What a radiant promise was the New World to all the dissatisfied! While the merchants made their plans for gain, while the Christian apostles, of illustrious tradition in America, prepared their crusades for conversion, a whole people of dreamers was moving toward Utopia.

America, it may be said without exaggeration, was desired and discovered (I almost said invented) precisely as a field for the overflow of the great quixotic impulses that could not be contained within

the old narrow limits of the world. The creators and discoverers of America were those whose bodies or souls were athirst, those who needed golden houses to satisfy their desire for luxury, or virgin souls in which to implant the idea of God. Later America continued to be a refuge of the persecuted: it became a land in which an accusing eye did not hinder the regeneration of Cain; it was already the hospitable home for the proscribed Huguenots and Puritans.

Now came European colonization. For three centuries the slow processes of germination weighed upon America; the ideal lived, but in a dormant condition. For although the seed was formed at the time of the discovery, later, when spiritual energies could find an outlet only through the administration of the viceroys, that seed lay sleeping beneath the soil. But it was not dead: on the contrary. As the Americans won their independence, this ideal became more and more clear, definite, and universal. During the nineteenth century the greatest Utopians—whether spiritualists, socialists, or communists, whether their beliefs were true or mistaken—took their way to America as to a promised land, where the happiness to which they all aspired under different names might be realized without an effort. Even today the whole continent is an incarnation of hope and offers to Europe a home for its human overflow.

Either this is the meaning of history or history has no meaning. If it is not the meaning, it ought to be, and we Americans know it. Immediate necessities, surface misunderstandings, may lead us astray for a day or for a year and even for a hundred years; the great orbit will be unaffected. The declination of our America is as surely fixed as that of a star. America began as an ideal and continues to be an ideal. America is Utopia.

The Glory of Columbus

ENRIQUE DE GANDÍA

*Secretary of the National Academy of History and the Academy of Ethical and Political Sciences,
Buenos Aires*

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS, like all geniuses, has been the object of bitter controversy. In life he enjoyed none of the rewards of which he had dreamed; in death injustice, conscious or unconscious, beset his name.

Historians love to repeat that the discovery of America changed men's dreams, gave new bases to science, transformed the world. All this, however, was true only in Spain. For that nation, which had been progressing for centuries, the discovery of America was like a collision with another planet. Europe remained asleep for a long time. The news of the finding of a new world penetrated but slowly into Italy, France, Germany, and other countries. In

some nations people continued living as if domination of the world by Spain did not exist. England, France, and Holland seized the discovery of America as an opportunity for pirating the Spanish ships that returned from the Indies laden with gold and silver. News of the discovery of America reaching Italy was vague and confused. Ambassadors and traders sent word that some boats had discovered islands or had reached the Indies, but echoes of the news were very feeble, very indistinct. Names were garbled, the stories were fantastic. As for the Discoverer, nobody even knew his full name and at the most he was called "one Columbo."



COLUMBUS SQUARE AND MONUMENT, BUENOS AIRES



MONUMENT TO THE DISCOVERER,
VALPARAÍSO

As for the name of America, fate ordained that instead of bearing the name of its Discoverer, it should be given that of a second-rate cosmographer, the Florentine Amerigo Vespucci. It is possible that he made four voyages, as he himself affirmed in a popular letter. His scientific knowledge, as contrasted with that of Columbus, has been very exaggerated, even to the point of saying that it was much superior. The difference between the two navigators, however, could not have been greater. Columbus was a natural genius, a mystic, a hero exalted by realities and dreams. Vespucci was only a navigator, like hundreds of others of his time. In his voyages—assuming that they were authentic—he was not even captain of the ship.

His writings abound with well-known details and reveal a very great ambition. When Vespucci was leaving Seville in 1505 for the Spanish court, Columbus gave him a letter for his son Diego, in which Columbus spoke benevolently of the bearer.

Vespucci never sought to give his own name to the newly found lands. The name is due to a small group of devotees of cosmography who lived at Saint Dié, in Lorraine, and who formed a historical academy or society of minor importance. Those provincial scholars heard the news about the New World with great interest. One day a translated letter from Amerigo Vespucci, dated Lisbon, September 4, 1504, came into their possession. They resolved to publish a *Cosmographiae Introductio*. Jean Basin translated Vespucci's letter into Latin and prepared the chapter on the New World, while other members of the Academy of the Vosges occupied themselves with different geographical subjects. The director of the work was Martin Waldzeemüller, who signed the humanistic name of Hylacomylus. The work was published on May 5, 1507, and in it Jean Basin de Sandocourt wrote in Latin to this effect: "Now these parts of the world, Europe, Africa, and Asia, have been explored in all directions and, as will be proven in the following work, Amerigo Vespucci has found a fourth part. I do not see how anyone could rightfully oppose the idea that in honor of Amerigo, father of the discovery and a man of discerning genius, it should be named Ameriga; that is to say, the land of Amerigo, or America, inasmuch as Europe and Asia also have feminine names."

Thus Columbus lost the glory, which so truly belonged to him, of bequeathing his own name, or Columbia, to the world he had discovered.

Modern scholars, misled by the fact that certain native words contain the syllables *ica*, *marica*, and *mérica*, have advanced the theory that the name America is also native and has nothing at all to do with Vespucci. Jules Marcon was one of the first and most erudite to uphold this absurdity. Since then students throughout America have republished this theory with more or less new arguments. Proofs to the contrary are overwhelming, so well known and of such quantity that no time will be taken here to expound them.

The achievements of Columbus have been very savagely discussed by students. He has been called pirate, converted Jew, fanatic, ignoramus, bandit, dissembler, miser, traitor. . . . It has been said that he undertook his voyage, not to reach the East by way of the West, but only to seek some isles near the Canaries. There have been attempts—such as Gelcich's—to show that Columbus did not discover compass variation, the difference between a magnetic and a true course, as he did in reality, but that such knowledge antedated him. There have been efforts to detract from all the merits of the great crossing in 1492, in disregard of the fact that Columbus made the voyage with the simplest kind of equipment. It is forgotten that he journeyed by dead reckoning, rarely taking the altitude of the sun or the pole star to determine his latitude; and that he could have no knowledge of ocean winds, currents, and distances. There were doubts as to the length of a degree of longitude on the equator, and furthermore, there was no practical astronomical method of computing longitude.

Hypercritical moderns, after belittling the figure of the great Admiral in their egotistic, useless, and erroneous analyses, have given more value to their censorious conclusions than to the feat of the discovery and attached more importance to

discussions and theories about Columbus than to the life of the Discoverer himself. Modern books make history of the mistakes incurred in these discussions of Columbus, and relegate to the background the true life story of the greatest navigator mankind has ever known.

Columbus has not fared well in either art or literature. Infinite are the pictures and statues representing him; but there is no picture that immortalizes him—except perhaps the much-discussed so-called Giovio portrait—and no statue that represents his supreme greatness. Poets have dealt more fairly with him, and in many cases they have tried to enshrine in verse the justice that historians have denied him. To catalogue the poems on Columbus that



COLUMBUS OBELISK, SAN JOSÉ, COSTA RICA



COLUMBUS WITH INDIAN, PANAMA



THE MONUMENT IN LIMA

exist in all languages would be a task of many volumes. Misfortune, or the mediocre talents of their authors, have pursued them. We may say the same of a few dramas and novels, especially the Italian ones. The epic poems on Columbus have had more renown; not for their merits, however, but for their length. Italy has been their most fecund source.

The greatest poets of sixteenth-century Italy, such as Ludovico Ariosto and Torquato Tasso, had only a vague idea of the personality of Columbus. Ariosto wrote his famous poem between 1505 and 1515; it was published in Ferrara by "Maestro Giovanni Mazzocco dal Bonderno adi XXI de Aprile M. D. XVI." The poet makes no mention of Columbus, but on the other hand he does recall Hernán Cortés. In

Canto XV, that is, Canto XIII of the first editions, Ariosto has Andronica prophesying the journeys of Vasco da Gama and Columbus, without mentioning them, and the greatness of Charles V. Ariosto still believed that the lands of America were those of India and the Orient. His lack of geographical knowledge is also exposed, in Canto VI (stanza 17 and the following), where Ruggiero travels through the world carried by the hippogriff. The enterprises of the Spaniards and their dominion over a large share of the world eclipsed Columbus in Ariosto's imagination.

Torquato Tasso died in 1595. He followed Ariosto by many years and in his work he touched, in passing, upon the name of Columbus. His is, in fact, the broadest understanding of Columbus shown

by any sixteenth-century Italian poet; but in general, as has been pointed out, the Discoverer seems to have been forgotten in the Italian literature of that epoch.

In France poetical works on Columbus were neither many nor good. The best was that of Madame Marie Anne du Boccage, *La Colombiade, ou La Foi Portée au Nouveau Monde*,¹ published in Paris in 1756 and translated into German in 1762, Italian in 1771, and English in 1773. In 1809 J. Félix Carteau published in Bordeaux a poem, *Le Songe de Colomb*, and Népomucène Lemerrier presented in the Odéon Theatre in Paris a play in verse entitled *Colomb, ou La Découverte du Nouveau Monde*, which was not well received by the Parisian public. In 1814 Louis Colomb Menard published in Nîmes a poetical composition of forty-six pages entitled *Christophe Colomb à son fils Dom Diego: Héroïde*; and in 1847 there was performed in the Paris Conservatory an allegory on *Christophe Colomb*, with words by Méry, Ch. Chaubert and Sylvain St. Étienne and music by Félicien David.

In Spain various poems have been dedicated to Columbus. We may mention here one of sixty-seven pages, *Colón y América*, written by C. de Soto y Corro and published by the Librería de Fernando Fe, Madrid, 1892.

The most extensive historical poem in the world about Columbus was written by Bernabé de María and published in Buenos Aires in 1887. The author recalled that "Fernand Denis has published a poem; Lorenzo Costa, another; Félicien David, his *Le Grand Océan*; and Warlon, the *Colombiana*, in which he imitated or translated Madame Lepage du Boccage;" and in order to fill the gap, he wrote a work of vast proportions which is remembered today

only as a bibliographical curiosity. The introduction, dated Buenos Aires, December 13, 1876, has twenty-four pages; the poem itself has six hundred and eighty pages, and the explanatory notes run from page 681 to page 787. The work, in quarto form, was issued by four publishing houses, in Buenos Aires, Montevideo, Santiago, and Valparaíso, and illustrated by José Pascó. For its poetic value it is not outstanding in the history of American literature, and its notes are a repetition of the notions already advanced by Roselly de Lorgues, Washington Irving, and other authors.

At the present time, World War II has reft some of the luster from the 450th anni-



STATUE IN MEXICO CITY

¹See "Columbus in Portuguese and Brazilian Literature," by Afranio Peixoto, p. 556.

versary of the Discovery. In Italy there is no lack of papers which lament Columbus's great deed. In America historical and literary reviews are dedicating special issues to the anniversary. In the United States a very substantial work on Columbus by Professor Samuel Eliot Morison has appeared.² There will also be a book by the writer of these lines.

The injustices heaped upon Columbus have not been limited to a greater or lesser misunderstanding of his achievement. The Discovery itself has even been denied him. First there were those who wished to

² "*Admiral of the Ocean Sea*," Little, Brown and Company, Boston, 1942. Commander Morison has honored this issue of the BULLETIN by a paper: "*The Earliest Colonial Policy toward America: That of Columbus*." See page 543.



Severin from Three Lions

COLUMBUS STATUE, NATIONAL PALACE,
SAN SALVADOR

attribute all the credit to the Norsemen who, sometime about the year 1000, under the leadership of Eric the Red, reached Vinland. Then there was talk of the Chinese and of Fu Sang, which in reality was nothing more than Japan. There have been theories that America was discovered by the Jews, Phoenicians, Carthaginians, Arabs, Celts, Bretons, Basques, Germans, Venetians, Catalonians, Russians, and other peoples. Of all these theories, the only plausible one is that pertaining to the voyages, dating from the year 1436, made by Basque whale and cod fishermen to Newfoundland. Also admissible is the theory of Professor Alberto Magnaghi, who offers the Vivaldo brothers of Genoa, as having been, in May 1291, precursors of Columbus in his aim of reaching the Indies, not by circumnavigating Africa but by crossing the Atlantic. The Vivaldo brothers were shipwrecked and there is no certain record that it was their intention to go to the East by way of the West. The Basques and Bretons who reached Newfoundland had no consciousness of the importance of their journeys and thought of the American coasts only as fishing banks. Attempts to attribute to unknown sailors the revelation to Columbus of the existence of the American continent have also been useless. No one has ever been able to prove the old tradition of the anonymous sailor who informed Columbus of the Western World. The supposed journey of the mariner of Dieppe, Jean Cousin, to the shores of America years before Columbus has been exposed as a legend, and today, after the studies made by Charles de la Roncière, everyone knows that between 1503 and 1505 Cousin was the boatswain of a captain named Gonnaville.

The descendants of the Columbus family in Genoa sank into such oblivion that even



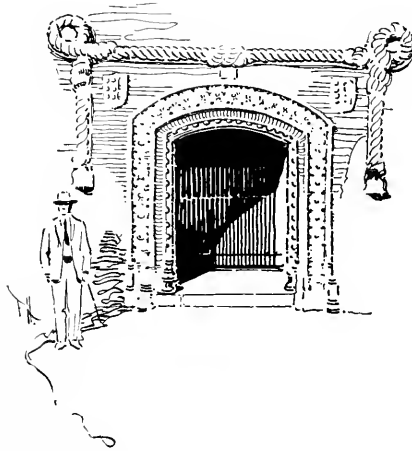
ONE OF THE TWO COLUMBUS MONUMENTS, CARACAS

in the sixteenth century it was impossible to find an authentic relative of the Discoverer. This did not happen in Spain or America, where the lines of his descendants have remained intact to the present time. Spain honored them more than any other nation in the world, maintaining all their privileges and giving to the Dukes of Veragua all that nobility, respect, and admiration can offer. The present Duke, descendant of Columbus's line, has just received the highest honors in Spain. In America the descendants of Columbus have kept their illustrious ancestry half hidden, some because they are ignorant of it and others because of true modesty. R. Cuneo Vidal discovered in the *Crónicas Potosinas* of Martínez Vela that at the beginning of the seventeenth century there lived in Upper Peru an unknown descendant of Christopher Columbus. Martínez Vela related that in the imperial city

of Potosí in the year 1608 there was a great fiesta, and that "Don Severino Colón, native of Potosí and great-grandson of the Admiral Don Cristóbal Colón, who gave the New World to Spain, entered the plaza carrying a very large globe of silver, representing the world which his great-grandfather had discovered." The genealogist Carlos Calvo has traced the lineage of Columbus in Argentina. The founder of this American branch was Pedro Antonio Colón de Larriátegui y Jiménez de Embún, born in Madrid and married in La Paz to María de Montoya, a native of that city. Their daughter, Isabel Colón de Larriátegui y Montoya, born in La Paz, was married to José Eugenio de Elías y Ceballos of Córdoba, Argentina, and became the mother of María Rafaela de Elías y Colón de Larriátegui, who was born in Córdoba, Argentina, October 20, 1799 and died in 1864. From this lady,

married to Roque del Sar y Riera (who was baptized in Buenos Aires on August 17, 1798), descended the present-day families of del Sar, Elías, Peacán del Sar, and López del Sar, whose ancestral lines, as we have seen, go back to the Great Admiral, Christopher Columbus.

A dispassionate history can only repeat the judgment that the old Spanish chroniclers gave of Columbus and say that the Discovery of America was the greatest event in the history of mankind, after that other event which belongs in the realm of divine history: the birth of Christ.



The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parenthesis, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of

measures already published are inserted with letters following the number (e. g. 2a).

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART VII

ARGENTINA

14a. April 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 117,775, prohibiting automobile racing because of the present scarcity of automobiles, tires, and fuel. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 12, 1942.)

14b. April 15, 1942. Treasury Resolution No. 148, approving the plan for automobile rationing prepared by the Commission for the Control of Automobile Rationing (*Comisión de Control de Racionamiento de Automotores*). (*Boletín Oficial*, May 12, 1942.)

17a. April 24, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 118,431, prohibiting the exportation of newsprint. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 12, 1942.)

20. June 19, 1942. Presidential Decree releasing conscripts of the 1920 class from service on June 22, 1942. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, June 20, 1942.)

21. July 31, 1942. Resolution, Director General of Posts and Telegraphs, prohibiting the broadcast of local Argentine news by radio stations unless the news is supplied by an Argentine agency (defined as one whose owners or shareholders are native Argentines or persons naturalized at least ten years ago). (*New York Times*, August 1, 1942.)

BOLIVIA

6. April 21, 1942. Executive Decree placing the exportation of rubber under strict government control and prohibiting such exportation without a permit issued by the Ministry of National Economy. (*El Diario*, La Paz, May 22, 1942.)

BRAZIL

31. June 15, 1942. Decree placing the Italian cable—Italcable—under government control and

providing that henceforth all traffic between Brazil and Argentina be strictly supervised. (*New York Times*, June 16, 1942.)

32. June 16, 1942. Order issued by the Minister of War calling into service the military classes of 1919, 1920, and 1922. (*New York Herald Tribune*, June 17, 1942.)

33. July 14, 1942. Decree making the Brazilian Air Force a separate unit of defense on a par with the Army and Navy. (*Christian Science Monitor*, July 15, 1942.)

34. July 19, 1942. Decree prohibiting the operation of all private and official automobiles in Rio de Janeiro, in order to conserve gasoline and insure continued operation of national defense industries. (*New York Times*, July 20, 1942.)

35. August 3, 1942. Presidential Decree enforcing in Northeastern Brazil (the Seventh Military Zone) a law enacted in 1921, authorizing the War Ministry to requisition supplies for military purposes and providing for the payment of indemnities to owners of the supplies. (*New York Times*, August 10, 1942.)

36. August 22, 1942. Declaration of war against Germany and Italy. (*New York Times*, August 23, 1942.)

CHILE

16. May 20, 1942. Order No. 22, Ministry of the Interior, setting forth revised rules and regulations regarding the circulation of motor vehicles. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, May 20, 1942.)

17. May 26, 1942. Approval by the Chamber of Deputies of a resolution providing for the appointment of a commission to investigate Nazi activities. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, May 27, 1942.)

18. May 26, 1942. Presidential Decree establishing a working day of consecutive working hours (*Jornada Única*) in specified places and for specified business, industrial, and educational activities; providing for the staggering of working hours; and setting the official time back one hour for the period May 1 to October 1. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, May 27, 1942.)

19. June 15, 1942. Statement issued by the Government requesting the press to refrain from publishing notices regarding war problems that might in any way offend governments maintaining friendly relations with Chile. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, June 16, 1942.)

20. June 25, 1942. Approval by the Senate of the Government's international policy and rejection of a motion to sever relations with the Axis. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, June 26, 1942.)

COLOMBIA

31. June 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1362, prescribing measures of a fiscal nature necessitated by the increasing difficulties the World War has created in Colombian economy. (Bulletin No. 409, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, June 11, 1942.)

32. June 22, 1942. Presidential Decree suspending for the duration of the present international emergency unrestricted trade in and exportation of rubber, balata, chicle, and similar products produced within the national territory, and prescribing other measures regulating the rubber industry. (Bulletin No. 411, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, June 25, 1942.)

COSTA RICA

32a. May 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 16 prohibiting the exportation of livestock and poultry and the reexportation of machinery and merchandise except as authorized by the Secretary of the Treasury and Commerce in cases of surplus or when required for continental defense. (Mentioned in *La Gaceta*, June 16, 1942.)

36. May 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 9 creating the Alien Property Custodian Board, of which the Office of Coordination will be a part. (*La Gaceta*, June 16, 1942.)

37. June 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 11 creating a General Drug Control Board to control requisitions for certain pharmaceutical products for the duration of the war and to avoid speculation and the unrestricted use of said products. (*La Gaceta*, June 11, 1942.)

38. July 11, 1942. Decree continuing the suspension of constitutional guarantees and the special powers of the President for another sixty days. (See Costa Rica 23, BULLETIN, June 1942.) (*New York Times*, July 12, 1942.)

39. August 9, 1942. Announcement by the National Bank of Costa Rica that after the end of August 1942 it will not buy American paper currency, to prevent its use by Axis agents. (*New York Times*, August 10, 1942.)

CUBA

178. June 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1778, making appropriations for the maintenance of interned enemy aliens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 30, 1942, p. 11609.)

179. June 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1688, creating the Office for the Control of Exchange and Importation of Money (*Oficina de*

Control de Cambio y de Importación de Moneda) and outlining its powers and duties, for the purpose of preventing the Axis powers from using United States money and currency in commercial transactions or other activities prejudicial to the United Nations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 20, 1942, p. 11033.)

180. June 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1894, suspending the application and effects of Presidential Decree No. 1332 of May 11, 1942 (see Cuba 156, BULLETIN, August 1942), disbanding for the duration of the war the Radio Amateurs' Organization, and ordering that within ten days members of that organization place all their radio equipment at the disposal of the armed forces or the Radio Office at Habana. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 13, 1942, p. 12510.)

181. July 1, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1877, creating certain posts in the Central Office of Civilian Defense and making appropriations therefor. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 10, 1942, p. 12407.)

182. July 3, 1942. Decree, Minister of Commerce, adding henequen or sisal fiber to the list of products and articles included under the exportation and reexportation rules and regulations contained in Presidential Decree No. 3485 of December 27, 1941 (see Cuba 26, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 8, 1942, p. 12218.)

183. July 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1859, regulating minimum wages and labor conditions of both industrial and agricultural sugar workers, in order that they may not suffer unduly from the economic and social conditions resulting from the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 9, 1942, p. 12251.)

184. July 6, 1942. Resolution, Central Public Service Council of the Department of Communications, publishing the Plan for the Rationing of Electric Services among the consumers of the *Compañía Cubana de Electricidad*, and outlining various measures for the immediate application of the plan. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 13, 1942, p. 12537.)

185. July 7, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1855, creating the Cuban Maritime Commission (*Comisión Marítima Cubana*) to function for the duration of the war and outlining its powers and duties. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 8, 1942, p. 12216.)

186. July 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1889, amending existing customs tariffs to facilitate the importation of goods for use in national industry, the subsequent exportation of the manufactured articles, and the reexportation of containers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 11, 1942, p. 12439.)

187. July 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1897, establishing the Commission of Indemnification for the Suspension of Port Activities (*Comisión de Indemnización por Paro Portuario*) for the benefit of laborers affected by changes in port activities because of the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 11, 1942, p. 12471.)

188. July 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1898, prescribing further rules and regulations and imposing further restrictions on the importation, exportation, transfer, and use of foreign money and currency, including that of the United States; creating the Office of Control of Exchange and Movement of Foreign Money; and repealing Presidential Decree No. 1688 (see Cuba 179 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 13, 1942, p. 12503.)

189. July 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1892, placing the Minister of Communications in charge of all matters relating to the production, distribution, and rationing of the electricity supplied by both public and private plants. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 11, 1942, p. 12472.)

190. July 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1900, authorizing the National Transportation Commission (*Comisión Nacional de Transportes*) to put into effect all necessary measures concerning the movement of vehicles and the consumption of motor fuel, tires, accessories, etc. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 13, 1942, p. 12509.)

191. July 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2058, making appropriations for the purchase of equipment and medicine for the use of interned enemy aliens. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 30, 1942, p. 13655.)

192. July 21, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1983, increasing the personnel of the National Recruiting Commission (*Comisión Nacional de Reclutamiento*) and authorizing the use of funds therefor. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 23, 1942, p. 13175.)

193. July 21, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2006, authorizing the National Anti-Fascist Front to send to Russia, free of export duties, 70 tons of leather and 50 tons of soap collected by democratic organizations and labor syndicates of Cuba, as aid to the fighting forces of that nation and as a token of sympathy with the cause of the United Nations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 24, 1942, p. 13307.)

194. July 22, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2041, prescribing standards governing the rights of workers called to compulsory military service. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 28, 1942, p. 13500.)

195. July 24, 1942. Emergency Resolution No. 1, National Transportation Commission, prescribing measures for the rationing of motor fuel and tires. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 25, 1942, p. 13344.)

196. July 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2069, transferring to the Ministry of National Defense, for the duration of the war, the buildings and grounds of the Civic Military Institute (*Instituto Cívico Militar*) at Holguín, Oriente, and the Child Guidance Center (*Centro de Orientación Infantil*) at Habana, for use in giving military instruction to civilians. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 30, 1942, p. 13689.)

ECUADOR

11a. February 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 65, temporarily suspending amateur radio stations in order to keep lines clear and better control clandestine broadcasts. (Memorandum, "Executive measures adopted by the Ecuadorean Government relating to the war," Quito, June 10, 1942.)

16. April 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 695, fixing the rate of dollar exchange and instructing the Central Bank of Ecuador to fix the rates of exchange for other countries. (*El Comercio*, Quito, April 29, 1942.)

17. May 1, 1942. Presidential Decree establishing a system of rationing for typewriters. (*El Comercio*, Quito, May 2, 1942.)

18. May 10, 1942. Presidential Decree creating a National Guard and prescribing regulations regarding its organization. (*El Comercio*, Quito, May 11, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

26. June 2, 1942. Legislative Decree extending for three more months the state of siege originally declared in Legislative Decree No. 91 of December 8, 1941 (see El Salvador 2, BULLETIN, April 1942, and 13, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, June 3, 1942.)

27. June 14, 1942. Governmental order providing for the attachment of iron stocks; to this end all merchants, as well as private individuals having more than 500 pounds, must make a report of their stock to the Committee on Economic Coordination. (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, June 15, 1942.)

28. June 18, 1942. Establishment by legislative order of the National Cooperation Board (*Junta de Cooperación Nacional*) to handle the collection of funds intended for national defense

purposes and in general to assist in any emergency. (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, June 19, 1942.)

GUATEMALA

11a. January 26, 1942. Presidential Order adopting for the duration of the war various measures regulating meteorological reports in order to safeguard the country's interests. (*Diario de Centro América*, January 29, 1942.)

11b. February 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2685, providing that as long as Decree No. 2655 (the Emergency Law—see Guatemala 10, BULLETIN, April 1942) remains in effect all German insurance companies, as well as any insurance companies on the proclaimed list or represented by blocked nationals operating in Guatemala, shall be controlled by the Insurance and Welfare Department of the National Mortgage Credit Association. (*Diario de Centro América*, February 7, 1942.)

13a. February 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2700, amending Decree No. 2655 (see Guatemala 10, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Diario de Centro América*, February 24, 1942.)

20a. April 28, 1942. Presidential Order authorizing the Pan American Airways, as long as present conditions prevail and within the limitations of the Order of January 26, 1942 (see 11a above), to use the private code they propose for their meteorological reports. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 27, 1942.)

23. May 19, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2766, amending Decree No. 2655 (see Guatemala 10, BULLETIN, April 1942) in order to prevent certain of its provisions from damaging the rights or interests of Guatemalans, and revoking Decree No. 2700 (see 13a above). (*Diario de Centro América*, May 21, 1942.)

24. May 28, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2775, prohibiting the importation of United States currency from any country other than those of the American continent and providing that United States currency may be exported only through the Central Bank of Guatemala; exception is made in the case of small quantities of currency carried by travelers. (*Diario de Centro América*, May 30, 1942.)

25. May 29, 1942. Presidential Decree further amending Decree No. 2655 (see Guatemala 10, BULLETIN, April 1942) and superseding Decree No. 2766 (see 23 above). (*Diario de Centro América*, May 29, 1942.)

26. June 5, 1942. Presidential Order designating June 14 as Flag Day, as a manifestation of

Guatemalan solidarity with the countries fighting in defense of democracy. (*Diario de Centro América*, June 22, 1942.)

27. June 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2789, directed toward promoting inter-American collaboration and protecting national economy by providing that all coffee plantations belonging to persons or entities appearing on the Proclaimed List shall be placed under the supervision of the Central Bank of Guatemala. (*Diario de Centro América*, June 15, 1942.)

28. June 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2791, extending the provisions of Decree No. 2789 (see 27 above) to mills, farms, and plantations producing articles for export and belonging to persons or entities appearing on the Proclaimed List. (*Diario de Centro América*, June 17, 1942.)

29. June 17, 1942. Presidential Order approving the Regulations for International Air Traffic. (*Diario de Centro América*, June 25, 1942.)

30. June 20, 1942. Presidential Decree providing for supervision by the Agricultural Department of the National Mortgage Credit Association over the mills and farms referred to in Decree No. 2791 (see 28 above); coffee plantations will continue under the supervision of the Central Bank of Guatemala (see 27 above). (*El Liberal Progresista*, Guatemala, June 22, 1942.)

31. June 22, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2796, providing that Decree No. 2371 of May 10, 1940, which granted 10 extra days for obtaining the consular visa for documents covering merchandise originating in Europe, shall apply to the countries of the American continent for the duration of the war, since conditions resulting therefrom have made it difficult to obtain such visas within the specified time limit. (*Diario de Centro América*, June 25, 1942.)

32. June 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2814, superseding Decree No. 2775 (see 24 above) and further regulating the importation and exportation of United States currency in order to prevent the governments of those countries with which Guatemala is at war from using in Guatemala United States currency obtained in occupied territories or countries. (*Diario de Centro América*, June 26, 1942.)

HONDURAS

13. May 29, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 47, amending Decree No. 46 of May 14, 1942 (see Honduras 12, BULLETIN, September 1942) by providing whenever necessary for the appointment of fiscal comptrollers for any commercial,

industrial, or agricultural business controlled by Germans, Italians, Japanese, or citizens of any country collaborating with the Axis. (*El Cronista*, Tegucigalpa, May 30, 1942.)

14. June 2, 1942. Order of the Ministry of the Interior advancing the official time one hour in order to conserve fuel oil. (*El Cronista*, Tegucigalpa, June 3, 1942.)

15. June 3, 1942. Presidential Order No. 1110, prohibiting the exportation, without a permit, of empty barrels, cans, tins, and other containers in which gasoline, Diesel oil, kerosene, and similar products are imported. (*La Gaceta*, June 15, 1942.)

16. August 6, 1942. Decree providing that maintenance of offices and the expenses of administering frozen Axis funds will be deducted from those funds. (*New York Herald Tribune*, August 7, 1942.)

MEXICO

51. June 23, 1942. Executive Order giving instructions to publicly or privately owned electric power plants for the prevention of sabotage. (*Diario Oficial*, July 1, 1942.)

52. June 23, 1942. Executive Order supplementing the list of firms and persons included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business (see Mexico 44 and 46, BULLETIN, September 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, July 18, 1942.)

53. June 23, 1942. Executive Order giving to the Department of the Treasury and Public Credit the powers and duties outlined in Art. 6 of the law on enemy property and business, referring to money, currency, foreign exchange, etc. (*Diario Oficial*, July 18, 1942.)

54. June 30, 1942. Decree providing for the coordination of civilian military instruction by the Department of National Defense. (*Diario Oficial*, July 22, 1942.)

55. July 1, 1942. Regulation governing the Inter-Departmental Board established in accordance with the law on enemy property and business (see Mexico 44, BULLETIN, September 1942). (Effective on date of publication in *Diario Oficial*.) (*Diario Oficial*, July 15, 1942.)

56. July 8, 1942. Decree exempting from payment of income taxes for the duration of the war non-interest-bearing loans and other financial operations with enterprises engaged in mining exploitation in Mexico. (*Diario Oficial*, July 23, 1942.)

57. July 13, 1942. Executive Order declaring the expropriation of specified lands adjacent to the Powder and Explosives Factory (*Fábrica de Pólvora y Explosivos*) to be of public utility. (*Diario Oficial*, July 20, 1942.)

58. July 14, 1942. Decree expropriating the lands adjacent to the Powder and Explosives Factory as specified in the Executive Order of July 13, 1942 (see 57 above). (*Diario Oficial*, July 20, 1942.)

PANAMA

14a. April 15, 1942. Decree No. 190, prohibiting for the duration of the war the exportation or reexportation of certain specified articles and setting forth regulations covering all exportation and reexportation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 16, 1942.)

15a. May 16, 1942. Decree No. 210, prohibiting the renting or chartering, without a permit from the Ministry of Finance and Treasury, of national boats engaged in coastwise trade. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 12, 1942.)

17. June 6, 1942. Decree No. 432, providing strict regulations to prevent the transfer of funds from Panama to foreign countries through channels which would allow such funds to be utilized against the democratic cause. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 17, 1942.)

18. June 10, 1942. Decree-Law No. 36, providing government control over all stocks, production, refining, importation, and sales of salt. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 27, 1942.)

PERU

16. June 6, 1942. Presidential decree providing that all stocks of rice in the country must be sold to the Government, requesting the Banco Agrícola del Perú to purchase the rice for the Government's account, and setting up regulations for its sale to merchants for supplying the public. (*El Peruano*, June 10, 1942.)

17. June 8, 1942. Presidential decree fixing the prices at which the Banco Agrícola del Perú will buy and sell rice and making other stipulations regarding State control of rice trade, in compliance with the previous decree (see 16 above). (*El Peruano*, June 10, 1942.)

18. June 26, 1942. Law No. 9592, rescinding all farm and plantation contracts with persons of totalitarian nationality and making compulsory the transfer of such properties and all other business interests to government representatives. (*El Peruano*, June 30, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

167a. June 22, 1942. Executive Order No. 9184, amending Executive Order No. 9139 of April 18, 1942 (see United States 110, BULLETIN, July 1942) to provide for the appointment of additional members to the War Manpower Commission. (*Federal Register*, June 25, 1942.)

180. July 6, 1942. Executive Order No. 9193, amending Executive Order No. 9095 of March 11, 1942 (see United States 70, BULLETIN, June 1942) which established the Office of Alien Property Custodian. (*Federal Register*, July 9, 1942.)

181. July 8, 1942. Public Law 658 (77th Congress), Flight Officer Act, creating the title of flight officer in the Army Air Forces, amending the Army Aviation Cadet Act, and authorizing the Secretary of War, during the continuance of the present war, to make temporary appointments of flight officers.

182. July 9, 1942. Public Law 663 (77th Congress), authorizing the head of the department or agency using the public domain for war purposes to compensate holders of grazing permits and licenses for losses sustained by reason of such use.

183. July 9, 1942. Public Law 665 (77th Congress), authorizing the construction of certain auxiliary vessels for the United States Navy.

184. July 9, 1942. Public Law 666 (77th Congress), establishing the composition of the United States Navy by increasing the number of under-age vessels by 1,900,000 tons of combatant ships, authorizing the construction of certain naval vessels, and authorizing an appropriation to be made for these purposes.

185. July 9, 1942. Executive Order No. 9197 transferring certain lands in the State of South Dakota from the Secretary of Agriculture to the Secretary of War for military purposes. (*Federal Register*, July 11, 1942.)

186. July 11, 1942. Public Law 667 (77th Congress), amending the National Service Life Insurance Act.

187. July 11, 1942. Executive Order No. 9198, transferring to the Administrator of War Shipping Administration those functions delegated to the Commandant of the United States Coast Guard by Executive Order No. 9183 of February 28, 1942 (see United States 63, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Federal Register*, July 15, 1942.)

188. July 15, 1942. Public Law 668 (77th Congress), amending the Act entitled "An Act to Incorporate the Disabled American Veterans of

the World War," approved June 17, 1932, changing the name to "Disabled American Veterans," and extending membership eligibility therein to American citizens, honorably discharged from the active military or naval forces of the United States or of some country allied with the United States, who have been either wounded, injured, or disabled by reason of such active service during time of war.

189. July 20, 1942. Public Law 671 (77th Congress), authorizing officers and enlisted men of the armed forces of the United States to accept decorations, orders, medals, and emblems tendered them by governments of cobelligerent nations or other American Republics and creating the decorations to be known as the "Legion of Merit" and the "Medal for Merit."

190. July 20, 1942. Public Law 672 (77th Congress), authorizing temporary appointments in the Army of the United States of officers on duty with the Medical Administrative Corps.

191. July 20, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2563, proclaiming that a state of war exists between the United States and Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria (see United States 141, BULLETIN August 1942) and outlining the conduct to be observed on the part of the United States towards all natives, citizens, denizens, or subjects of Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria, of the age of fourteen years and upward, who shall be within the United States or within any territories in any way subject to the jurisdiction of the United States and not actually naturalized. (*Federal Register*, July 21, 1942.)

192. July 20, 1942. Executive Order No. 9203, authorizing the Procurement Division of the Treasury Department to use certain Manila fiber as determined by the Chairman of the War Production Board. (*Federal Register*, July 22, 1942.)

193. July 21, 1942. Executive Order No. 9204, coordinating federal activities affecting the fishery industry in order to develop and assure sustained production of aquatic food supplies essential to the conduct of the present war. (*Federal Register*, July 24, 1942.)

194. July 23, 1942. Public Law 675 (77th Congress), promoting the national defense and facilitating and protecting the transport of materials and supplies needful to the Military Establishment by authorizing the construction and operation of a pipe line and a navigable barge channel across Florida, and by deepening and enlarging the Intercoastal Waterway from its present eastern terminus to the vicinity of the Mexican border.

195. July 25, 1942. Public Law 678 (77th Congress), First Supplemental National Defense Appropriation Act, 1943, making supplemental appropriations for the national defense for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1943.

196. July 25, 1942. Executive Order No. 9205, establishing the President's War Relief Control Board and defining its functions and duties. (*Federal Register*, July 29, 1942.)

197. July 27, 1942. Executive Order No. 9206, prescribing regulations governing the granting of allowances for quarters and subsistence to enlisted men. (*Federal Register*, July 30, 1942.)

198. July 28, 1942. Public Law 680 (77th Congress), providing for the posthumous appointment to commissioned or noncommissioned grade of certain enlisted men and the posthumous promotion of certain commissioned officers and enlisted men.

199. July 28, 1942. Public Law 681 (77th Congress), amending the joint resolution approved August 27, 1940 (54 Stat. 858), as amended, and the Selective Training and Service Act of 1940 (54 Stat. 885), as amended, to remove the requirement that medical statements shall be furnished to those persons performing military service thereunder.

200. July 28, 1942. Public Law 682 (77th Congress), establishing additional commissioned warrant and warrant grades in the United States Navy.

201. July 30, 1942. Public Law No. 689 (77th Congress), expediting the war effort by amending the Naval Reserve Act of 1938, thereby creating a Women's Reserve for the performance of shore duty to replace officers and men who can thus be released for duty at sea.

URUGUAY

32a. April 14, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 410/942, including paper among the articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, May 26, 1942.)

41a. April 30, 1942. Decree-Law No. 1496, broadening the rules covering expropriations necessary for national defense. (*Diario Oficial*, May 27, 1942.)

44. May 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 899/940, regulating the issue of National Defense Bonds. (*Diario Oficial*, May 26, 1942.)

45. May 19, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 410/942, including ship chandlers' stores among articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, May 29, 1942.)

46. May 21, 1942. Executive Resolution No. 4197, requiring a test before explosives, either nationally manufactured or imported, may be put on sale. (*Diario Oficial*, June 1, 1942.)

47. May 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 895/940, fixing the minimum price for rice acquired directly from the producer. (*Diario Oficial*, June 4, 1942.)

48. May 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 985/938, suspending until further notice the measures prohibiting the transportation of fruit in bulk, because of the rise in the cost of crates and in freight rates and the scarcity of fuel. (*Diario Oficial*, June 4, 1942.)

49. June 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 792/941, fixing maximum prices for the sale of rice to consumers. (*Diario Oficial*, June 9, 1942.)

50. June 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 680/942, giving individuals permission to report any stocks of structural iron that have not been declared (see Uruguay 22, BULLETIN, August 1942) and providing for their remuneration with a percentage of the proceeds from the confiscation. (*Diario Oficial*, June 9, 1942.)

51. June 5, 1942. Decree-Law authorizing the continuance of the Río Negro hydroelectric works and, to that end, authorizing the arrangement of a loan from the United States. (*Diario Oficial*, June 12, 1942.)

52. June 5, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 561/935, fixing the maximum sales prices for electric conductors and other accessories of national manufacture. (*Diario Oficial*, June 17, 1942.)

VENEZUELA

29. May 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 105, reorganizing the Import Control Commission; adjusting its duties and functions to the needs created by the present situation; and repealing previous import control legislation, including the Resolution of February 6, 1942 (see Venezuela 14, BULLETIN, June 1942) and Presidential Decree No. 41 of March 4, 1942 (see Venezuela 14b, BULLETIN, July 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 19, 1942.)

30. May 20, 1942. Resolution No. 14-1, National Price Regulation Board, prohibiting the establishment of new interurban motor transport services for either passengers or freight or new urban passenger services, as well as any changes lengthening the routes or increasing the number of vehicles or their frequency on lines now in operation. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 20, 1942.)

31. May 27, 1942. Resolution No. 8, Treasury Department, authorizing the Import Control Commission to request from importers, producers, and merchants such information as will serve as a basis for coordinating the activities of the Commission with those of the organizations in other countries charged with the regulation of exports, quota distribution, and similar functions (see 29 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 27, 1942.)

32. May 29, 1942. Resolution No. 17, National Price Regulation Board, correcting Resolution No. 9 of March 14, 1942 (see Venezuela 20, BULLETIN, July 1942) by fixing new maximum prices for vegetable substitutes for lard, and Resolution No. 10 of March 14, 1942 (see Venezuela 21, BULLETIN, July 1942) by fixing new maximum prices for copra. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 30, 1942.)

33. May 29, 1942. Resolution No. 18, National Price Regulation Board, correcting Resolution No. 9 of March 14, 1942 (see Venezuela 20, BULLETIN, July 1942) by fixing new maximum prices for food pastes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 30, 1942.)

34. June 5, 1942. Resolution No. 1, Ministry of Promotion, suspending, as long as conditions resulting from the present emergency make it advisable, a specified section of the Tourist Law which is affected by the Decree restricting and suspending certain constitutional guarantees (see Venezuela 6, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 5, 1942.)

35. June 5, 1942. Resolution No. 10, Treasury Department, approving the Rules and Regulations of the Import Control Commission as drawn up by that body. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 6, 1942.)

36. June 12, 1942. Resolution No. 21, National Price Regulation Board, fixing the maximum sales price for rope. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 15, 1942.)

37. June 12, 1942. Resolution No. 22, National Price Regulation Board, fixing the maximum sales prices for certain specified articles (various kinds of tools). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 15, 1942.)

38. June 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 138 restricting certain civil guarantees, inasmuch as the scarcity of raw materials and the present emergency necessitate government control over certain problems related to working conditions. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 16, 1942.)

39. June 16, 1942. Resolution No. 574, Ministry of Promotion, adding mosquito nets to the list of articles of prime necessity subject to price regulation by Price Regulation Boards. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 16, 1942.)

40. June 16, 1942. Resolution No. 575, Ministry of Promotion, adding matches to the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 16, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

24. July 1, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Poland, negotiated under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, on the principles applying to mutual aid in the prosecution of the war. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 4, 1942.)

25. July 3, 1942. Announcement by the United States Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare of the signing of an agreement with Colombia whereby the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase during the next five years all rubber produced in Colombia which is not required for essential domestic needs there. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 4, 1942.)

26. July 8, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and the Kingdom of the Netherlands, negotiated under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, on the principles applying to mutual aid for the prosecution of the war. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 11, 1942.)

27. July 10, 1942. Agreement between the Governments of the United States and Greece, negotiated under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, on the principles applying to mutual aid in the prosecution of the war. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 11, 1942.)

28. July 11, 1942. Agreement between the Government of the United States and the Provisional Government of Czechoslovakia, negotiated under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, on the principles applying to mutual aid in the prosecution of the war. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 11, 1942.)

29. July 11, 1942. Agreement between the Government of the United States and the Royal

Norwegian Government, negotiated under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, on the principles applying to mutual aid in the prosecution of the war. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 11, 1942.)

30. July 15, 1942. Announcement by the United States Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare of the signing of an agreement with Bolivia whereby the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase during the next five years all rubber produced in Bolivia other than that required for essential domestic needs there and except for a maximum of 250 tons to be available annually for export to neighboring countries. Provision is made for the expenditure by the Rubber Reserve Company of \$2,125,000 in the development of rubber resources in Bolivia. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 18, 1942.)

31. July 17, 1942. Announcement by the United States Department of State, the Board of Economic Warfare, and the Commodity Credit Corporation of an agreement between the latter and the *Sociedad Nacional de Productores de Alcohol* of Mexico under the terms of which the Commodity Credit Corporation will purchase the entire exportable surplus of Mexico's alcohol production up to the end of February 1943. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 18, 1942.)

32. July 21, 1942. Announcement by the United States Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare of the signing of a rubber agreement with Ecuador whereby the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase during the next five years all rubber produced in Ecuador not required for essential domestic needs. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 25, 1942.)

33. July 24, 1942. Agreement between the Government of the United States and the Royal Yugoslav Government, negotiated under the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act of March 11, 1941, on the principles applying to mutual aid in the prosecution of the war. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, July 25, 1942.)



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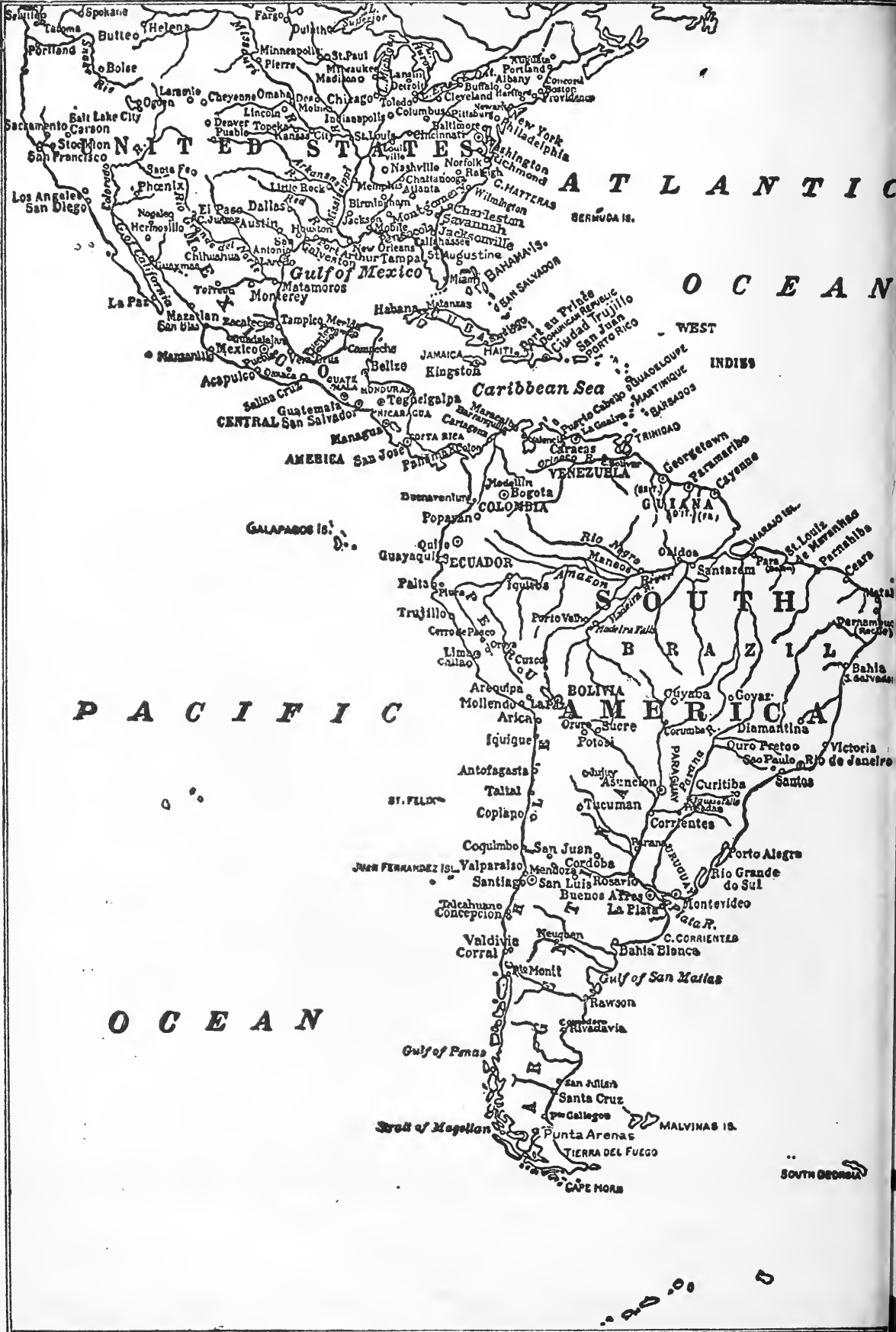
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MT. LANÍN IN THE ARGENTINE ANDES

NOVEMBER

1942

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

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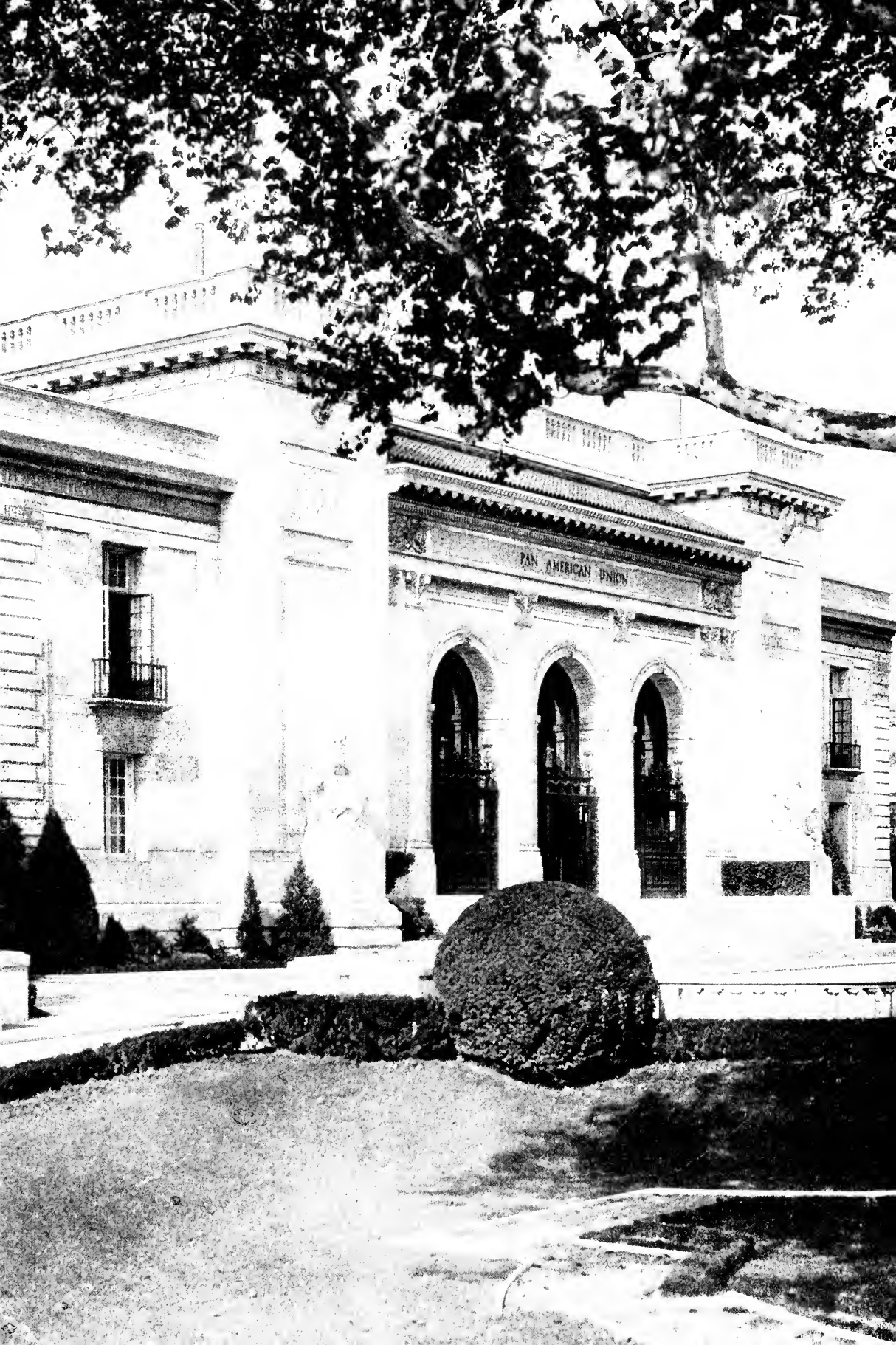
and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

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The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

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The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, WASHINGTON





THE CAPITOL, CARACAS

Caracas, situated in a beautiful and fertile valley 3,000 feet above sea level, is preeminent in the economic and social life of the nation.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

VOL. LXXVI, No. 11



NOVEMBER 1942

The Caracas–Quito Highway

Part I. The Venezuelan Section

RAYMOND E. CRIST

SINCE the advent of the automobile the program of road building has been pushed with great energy in most parts of the world, and this is particularly true of the Latin American countries during the past ten or fifteen years. It was the privilege of the writer, while pursuing studies in human geography, to make the trip via motor road from Caracas, Venezuela, to Bogotá, Colombia, and thence to Quito, Ecuador. This great highway, named for Simón Bolívar, not only traverses and connects three separate political units, but links important complementary regions within the several countries.

The overland trek is really begun at the little town of La Guaira, the port of Caracas on the Caribbean, flanked by steep moun-

tains, the lower slopes of which are rather bare. The baked brick-red soil is separated from the beautiful light blue water of the American Mediterranean by the white lines of the breaking surf. The port is quite small and very shortly the traveller is on the road to Caracas through the xerophytic vegetation of the lower slopes of the mountains, where only goats thrive. The building of this sector of the highway, one of the first in Venezuela, was a remarkable feat. It is now being widened in places to accommodate the newer cars and larger trucks.

Caracas is the capital of Venezuela in spite of rather than because of its position. It is hard to reach from the coast, and it is not a natural focus of routes from the interior of the country, which is shut off from it by deep narrow valleys and steep slopes. But it is in a beautiful and fertile

The field and library work on which this article is based was made possible by grants from the John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation and the Graduate Research Board of the University of Illinois.

valley, in the mild air found at 3,000 feet above sea level, almost free from the disease-carrying insects that plague lower-lying areas. Capital of the country at an early date, it has retained its preeminence in the economic and social life of the republic. The influential people of Venezuela have always preferred to live in Caracas, and they have been able to make it the center not only of the political and social life of the country, but of commerce as well. It has been only in recent years that Maracaibo has seriously threatened this hegemony.



Photograph by Elsie Brown

LAKE VALENCIA

In the Lake Valencia basin, one of the loveliest of tropical areas, sugar cane and cotton are extensively grown.

The Lake Valencia Basin, which contains some 120,000 acres of flat alluvial soil, is on the average about 60 miles from the market of Caracas and has excellent railroad and motor-road facilities. All this land lies within the zone of *tierra caliente* (hot lands) and is quite flat; hence large-scale irrigation and mechanization are possible. This is certainly the future bread basket of the capital, and already great quantities of cotton are being grown.¹ This is one of the loveliest of tropical areas, and it was here on a sugar plantation that Simón Bolívar, destined to be the future liberator of five South American countries, was born. The lacustrine plain around Lake Valencia is a suitable place for the preparation of cultivated pastures on which lean animals from the Orinoco llanos are fattened. The well-paved road to Valencia passes through Maracay, which General Gómez made the seat of his régime for many years. Here are found an agricultural experiment station and the headquarters of the Army and Air Force.

Valencia possesses several advantages of location: it is surrounded by the largest area of agricultural production in the country; it can be reached from the Caribbean by a relatively easy pass; it is connected with the great plains to the south by roads across low passes in the Serranía del Interior—those of Tinaquillo and Villa de Cura. Because of the low altitude of Valencia the early settlers preferred to leave their lands in charge of overseers and to make their homes in Caracas. But the steers, hides, and cheeses from the great Orinoco llanos find a ready market in Valencia, and the further bettering of roads to the south, as well as the

¹ Crist, R. E., and Chardón, C. E., "Changing Patterns of Land Use in the Valencia Lake Basin of Venezuela," *Geographical Review*, Vol. XXXI, No. 3, July 1941, pp. 430-443.



AN INTER-URBAN BUS IN VENEZUELA

Valencia is a center of bus traffic over the Simón Bolívar Highway, which has been instrumental in uniting the Andean region more closely with the capital.

increasing industrialization, will mean augmented growth for the town.²

The road leaves Valencia via Las Trincheras, the pass in the Coast Ranges, and descends rapidly to the coast. The tropophytic forest has been cut over vast areas of the steep mountainsides by the shifting agriculturalists, and stream erosion is producing great gullies as the top soil is removed. Before reaching Puerto Cabello the highway to the Andes turns to the left at the tiny crossroads town of El Palito and leads to the valley of the Yaracuy River. Here begins the gravel road, which is not in very good condition. The countryside is covered with a low forest of spiny plants—cereus, agaves, and other cacti—as far as the tiny negro village of Morón, which has about 50 thatch-roofed houses. The heat is intense. Here General Galavis has built a factory

for the making of coconut oil. This enterprising man has also cleared large areas of the dense forest found farther westward and planted them in pasture—*gamelote* (*Panicum maximum*). Here sleek cattle browse in lush pastures, above which wave beautiful palms on extremely high straight trunks.

After some miles of this seemingly well-exploited open forest region, the road suddenly plunges into dense tropical rain-forest where gigantic trees are covered with matted vegetation of parasites, epiphytes and clinging vines. For over an hour the road winds through this dense forest, then as suddenly enters a much drier, more open region, where there are more pastures and, in the distance, low mountains. After crossing the Yaracuy River, there are a few cacao plantations before reaching the small regional capital of San Felipe. Thence to Barquisimeto the trip is not particularly interesting. The vegetation is sparse because the drying trades blow over the area

²R. E. Crist, "Along the Llanos-Andes Border in Zamora, Venezuela," *Geographical Review*, Vol. XXII, No. 3, July 1932, pp. 411-422.



Photograph by Raymond E. Crist

THE MOTATAN VALLEY

At Valera the road enters the Motatán valley and rises rapidly. The traveller passes through several different life zones in a few hours.

most of the year. The heat is suffocating, and clouds of dust almost choke one when another car is passed.

Barquisimeto is located at the hinge zone where the northeast-southwest trending Andes end and the east-west coast ranges begin. The area is exposed to the full force of the northeastern trades the greater part of the year. Only in October and November—and then not every year—does some convectional rain fall. Hence the environs of this regional capital are very hot and dry. The gently rolling landscape supports only drought-resistant plants such as cactus and spiny shrubs. There is not a blade of grass growing, and those plants that do survive seem to grow out from the bare earth as if called forth by a magic wand. Goats feed upon the coarse spiny forage; the few people live in miserable thatched huts with mud-plastered walls. Drinking water for both man and goat is

preserved in artificial ponds from one rain to the next. People precariously make a living by manufacturing goat cheese, called *taparita*, by distilling rum, *cocuy*, from the local agave plant (*Fourcroya Humboldtiana*), and by manufacturing sacks on hand looms from the fiber extracted from the same agave.³

The position of Barquisimeto, toward which converge roads from the llanos, or great grass plains to the south, from the Andes and from the extensive desert to the north, would make it the economic center of gravity of the country were it not for the exceedingly dry climate. It was an important crossroads even before the Conquest.

The future standing of this city will be strengthened by the completion of the new stretch of highway to the Andes via Quíbor,

³ R. E. Crist, "Subsistence Manufacturing," *The Scientific Monthly*, Feb. 1942, Vol. LIV, pp. 132-137.

El Tocuyo, Biscucuy, Boconó, and Trujillo that is to join the present more northern route at Pampán, just north of Trujillo. Westward from Barquisimeto the road at present is very bad, utilizing for many miles an arroyo, or bed of a stream which seldom carries water. Many of the hills are entirely bare, incapable of supporting even the cactus plant, and the heat during the day is terrific. From Carora to La Cuchilla the landscape is much the same, but near the latter village the flora becomes more varied, and many corn fields prove that the soil is quite fertile even though the area is mountainous, dry, and hot. The higher altitude and proximity to the mountain give the area the aspect more of a tropical savanna than of a desert; large numbers of cattle are grazed here and find a market both in the mountains to the south and in the oil center of Maracaibo. This part of the road will probably be in great part abandoned once the mountain highway via Boconó has been completed.

The desert area between the coast ranges and the Andes long acted as a kind of border zone, across which the central authority emanating from Caracas had difficulty in making itself felt. Under the colonial régime the Venezuelan Andes were politically, culturally, and commercially tied to the viceroyalty of New Granada, with its seat in Bogotá. Young men from this region with ambition to study science, theology, or politics went to Pamplona or Bogotá, rather than to Caracas. Until the building of roads most of the traffic went north across Lake Maracaibo, and the few trails eastward to Caracas were almost never used. The Indian farmers of the Andes were too far away from urban centers to worry whether Caracas or Bogotá was the capital, or *centro*. Road construction has been highly significant in Venezuela, not only in

increasing the strength of the central authority, but in helping guarantee the internal peace necessary for economic advance.

Valera (altitude 1,770 ft.) a thriving, "gateway-to-the-Andes" town, is on the first of the great mesas or alluvial terraces of the Andes. Here the traveller begins to feel the refreshing coolness induced by the elevation, so welcome after the hot dusty trip from Carora. Leaving Valera, the road enters the narrow valley of the Mototán River where sugar cane is grown on small irrigable plots. The valley becomes progressively narrower and the mountains on either side more precipitous as one ascends. The slopes are covered with cactus and spiny shrubs and bushes. The actively eroding stream roars loudly as it flows over the great boulders in its path. The temperature gets perceptibly cooler, and stone fences—typical Andean features—appear. Here the route occasionally runs along the base of vertical cliffs of unconsolidated alluvium which are 60 to 70 feet in height. A slide from



Photograph by L. P. Schultz

THE PASS OF MUCUCHÍES

The highest point on the Venezuelan section of the highway is this pass, about 13,400 feet above sea level. The monument is a tribute to Bolívar, the hero of Independence, who marched his troops over the Andes to Colombia.



Courtesy of A. Spinetti Dini

THE CURVING HIGHWAY

The road progresses by an unending series of curves along the sides of the mountains.



Courtesy of A. Spinetti Dini

ANDEAN VEGETATION

Above the limits of cultivation are found prickly mosses, low shrubs, and many plants of the *frailejón*, which has white or cream-colored center leaves.

one of these cliffs may cover the road and delay traffic for several hours, but road gangs are ever on the alert for such eventualities.

Timotes is an important stop-over town at an altitude of some 6,500 feet; hence it enjoys an equable climate with cool nights and warm days. It is an important regional center of the lower Andes.⁴

From Timotes the road ascends rapidly and at Chachopo the air is quite cold. The steepness of the ascent is shown by the series of hairpin turns. The only crops grown near here are wheat and potatoes. Indeed, wild potatoes grow in the cold upper reaches of this valley. In just a few hours it is possible to pass through several altitudinal life zones along this sector of the highway; they have been the

⁴ R. E. Crist, "Timotes, Venezuela," *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, June 1942, pp. 301-310.

object of study by Dr. Carlos E. Chardón, distinguished Puerto Rican mycologist.⁵

On the páramo—that is, above the upper limits of cultivation—the landscape has the aspect of an arctic tundra, and here grow prickly mosses and hardy shrubs a foot or so high. The lion's share of the vegetation consists of the velvety-leaved *frailejón*, the white or cream-colored center leaves of which sit up on huge stocks and add a bright note to an otherwise grayish drab landscape. The high point of the road is reached at the pass of Mucuchíes at some 13,382 feet above sea level. From here, where there are magnificent views when the weather is clear, the road descends to the little crossroads of Apartaderos, where a mule trail leads off

⁵ "Life Zones in the Andes of Venezuela," *BULLETIN of the Pan American Union*, vol. 67, 1933, pp. 620-633.



Courtesy of A. Spinetti Dini

THE CATHEDRAL, MÉRIDA

Behind the charming old city of Mérida rise snow-covered peaks towering to an altitude of more than 15,000 feet.

down the valley of the Santo Domingo River to the town of Barinas and its tributary area of the western llanos. Evidences of former glaciation are all about. The lake of Santo Domingo is of glacial origin. The fields are so full of large stones that they are piled up to form fences around even the smallest plots. Here again the main crops are wheat and potatoes. The landscape in many places assumes the aspect of a middle latitude steppe; were it not for the rugged relief it would very much resemble the wheat-producing areas of western South Dakota, and the wheat farmers around Mucuchíes, like those in western South Dakota, are marginal. One part of a field may be too rocky, another too steep, to be of value, still another so high and cold that in a year of exceptional cloudiness the crop will not

mature. And the whole area is apt to suffer from drought in dry years.⁶

In the wheat district the valley is quite broad and there are extensive cultivable slopes. Farther downstream the valley narrows for a number of miles, and then suddenly widens out at about 5,000 feet. In this wide, rather level, area, an alluvial deposit in which the Chama, Mucujún, and Albaregas Rivers have cut deep V-shaped valleys, is located the beautiful mountain city of Mérida. This is not only the commercial center of the Venezuelan Andes, but the administrative and intellectual center as well.⁷

The products of the cold bleak páramos, as well as of the tropical rainforest and the nearby desert, are brought here not only by truck but also by mule, ox, or human carrier, in exchange for groceries and manufactured goods.

Continuing down the Chama valley from Mérida the road follows the alluvial terrace as far as Ejido, where the vegetation becomes xerophytic, with many cacti and spiny mimosaceae. The landscape is barren and sterile, except for the fields of sugar cane on the level irrigable areas. The mountain slopes are greatly dissected in this typical rain-shadow desert. The winds crossing the mountains to the north lose their moisture on the other side, and only by rising again to the elevation of Mérida or higher are they forced to precipitate. The Chama River valley becomes wider until it reaches the gorge through which the stream escapes to the northwest to empty into Lake Maracaibo. At Estanques the vegetation changes abruptly within a mile. The hills become wooded again and the valley is full of green pastures. The winds come through

⁶ R. E. Crist, "Wheat Growing in the Venezuelan Andes." To be published in *The Scientific Monthly*.

⁷ R. E. Crist, "Mérida, Venezuela—From Isolation to Integration." *The Scientific Monthly*, August 1942, pp. 114-131.



Photograph by Beatrice Newhall

RAIN FOREST ALONG THE HIGHWAY

the low Chama gorge and drop their moisture in the valley of which Tovar is the thriving regional capital.

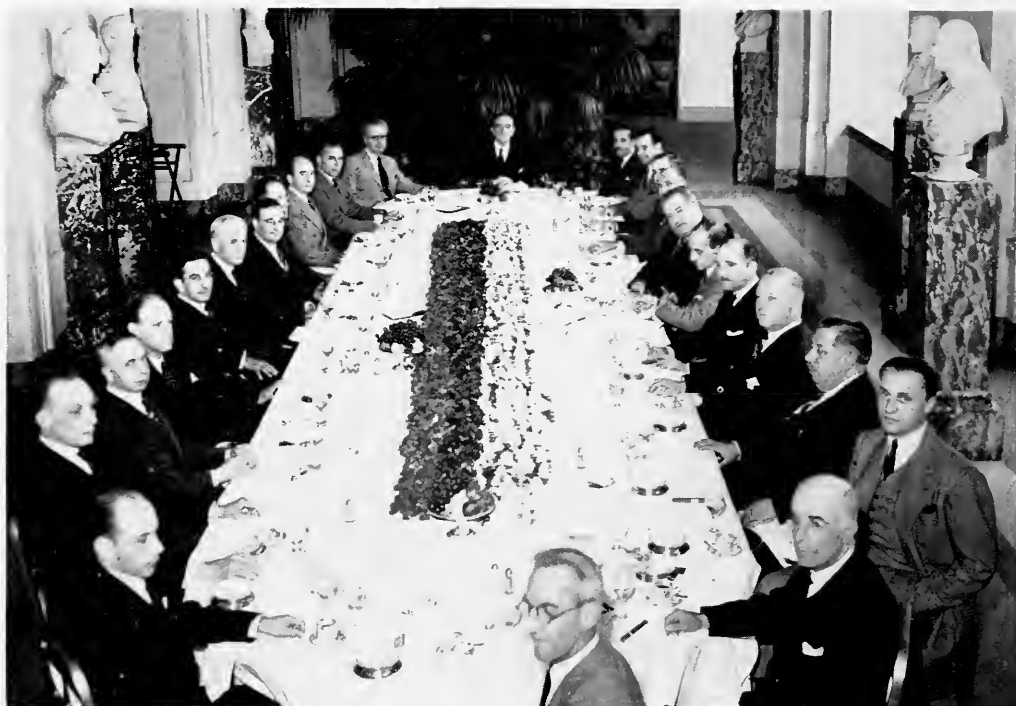
From Tovar to Bailadores there is excellent farm land, and here one can see corn, wheat, sugar cane, and plantains growing side by side. Then the road ascends rapidly by means of great hairpin loops to reach the pass of La Negra, where the evidences of glaciation are well preserved, and then follows a long valley with well developed and intensively cultivated alluvial terraces before coming to the town of La Grita.

The scenery around La Grita, even to one who has first crossed the high páramo of La Negra and followed the Táchira River, which has cut a deep valley into the older alluvium, is exceedingly picturesque. This town gets its name from the Indians who inhabited the area in pre-conquest times, and who shouted loudly as they did battle with the Spaniards. The church towers and the low white-walled, red-roofed houses add distinction to the town, located on a steeply sloping alluvial fan into which streams have entrenched their valleys to depths of from 50 to 60 feet. In the outskirts of the town are many vegetable gardens, produce from which, since the construction of the highway, finds its way to the Maracaibo market. Manure from the stables in town is used to fertilize the fields, on which irrigation is also practiced. Farther from town, on tiny plots, self-sufficient agriculturalists raise corn, plantains, and some yuca.

Between La Grita and San Cristóbal there is another pass, El Zumbador, to cross, but it is not high or difficult. This stretch of the road runs through rather poor country, and it is only a few miles before

reaching San Cristóbal that the valley widens sufficiently to support a rather dense agricultural population. The first important little urban agglomeration is Táriba; its very interesting market, held every Monday, attracts many people in from their tiny farms. Here they exchange farm produce for groceries and manufactured goods. A huge tree, around which the booths are ranged, stands in the center of the plaza.

San Cristóbal, the capital of the border state of Táchira, is a town of 12,000 to 15,000 inhabitants, located in a wide mountain-girdled valley on an alluvial terrace above the Torbes River, which flows south to the great Orinoco basin. The altitude above sea level is 2,720 feet and the climate is mild the year round. Mosquitoes are rare, and the cool nights are most pleasant. Almost directly north are the rural villages of Táriba and Palmira. San Cristóbal, the terminus in western Venezuela of the great transandine highway, is one of the natural gateways to the western llanos, and there is a road under construction that follows the Torbes and enters the great cattle country south of the mountains. Moreover, the town is linked with the important coffee center at Rubio; most of the coffee production of Táchira goes through San Cristóbal to Estación Táchira, 45 miles to the north, thence by rail to Encontrados, thence down the Cataumbo River, and across Lake Maracaibo to the city of that name. Steers are driven from the llanos across the mountains to Estación Táchira and thence shipped to the market in Maracaibo. It is very probable that San Cristóbal would have been much larger if the Andes of Venezuela were still a part of the political unit of Colombia.



Governing Board Honors the New Minister of Foreign Affairs of Colombia

ON SEPTEMBER 24, 1942, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union held a luncheon at the Pan American Union in honor of the Ambassador of Colombia, Dr. Gabriel Turbay, recently appointed Minister of Foreign Affairs of Colombia by President Alfonso López. Speaking in the name of the Board members, the Chairman, the Hon. Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, addressed the Colombian Ambassador in the following words:

MR. AMBASSADOR:

My colleagues of the Governing Board have entrusted to me the privilege of extending to you their most cordial congratulations on your

appointment as Minister of Foreign Affairs of Colombia. We who have worked with you during these trying times fully appreciate how well you deserve this high honor.

During the three years that we have had the benefit of your collaboration in the work of this Board, you have given enthusiastic support to every plan tending to foster ever closer ties between the nations of this hemisphere. For the service that you have thus rendered, we are profoundly grateful. Your withdrawal from this Board is deeply regretted by all your colleagues, but our regret is tempered by the certainty that in the high post you are about to assume we can always count on your continued interest and enthusiastic cooperation.

Let me assure you that the warmest wishes of every member of the Board accompany you in the important duties you are about to undertake. I

offer a toast to your health and happiness and to the prosperity of your great country.

Dr. Turbay in reply said:

MR. CHAIRMAN:

In response to the expression of esteem and friendship with which you honor me in the name of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union I beg that you and my other distinguished colleagues will accept my sincere gratitude.

Your words and your good wishes will always be a source of generous encouragement and a heartening memory as I undertake my new duties as Minister of Foreign Affairs of my country.

The work that I have been sharing with you during the past three years in the service of political ideals essential to the life and security of America is one of the noblest of undertakings. I feel closely linked with it because of my ardent faith in its immediate and future results.

In taking leave of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, I have a feeling that I shall not really be away from you or from the spirit of your deliberations. I depart with the impression that I am merely moving to another trench in the defense lines of our democratic institutions, threatened today from all corners of the world by violent destruction and by the most implacable servitude.

You may be certain that upon assuming the new post with which my Government has honored me, it will be a pleasure to continue to support

with interested and enthusiastic cooperation the ideals of the Pan American Union, today more deeply rooted than ever before in the hearts of the American people.

Please accept, Mr. Chairman and distinguished colleagues, my appreciation for this honor and my best wishes for your personal welfare.

The new Minister of Foreign Affairs of Colombia was born in the city of Bucaramanga, in the eastern Department of Santander, in 1902. Shortly after graduating from the National University in Bogotá, he entered public life, where he has had a distinguished career as diplomat, statesman, and member of Congress. He served as Minister of the Interior (1933), and as Minister of Foreign Affairs (1937-38). Before coming to Washington in 1940 as Ambassador of Colombia to the United States, Dr. Turbay had been Minister of Colombia to Belgium, Peru, Italy, and Switzerland, as well as Chairman of the Colombian delegation to the League of Nations from 1935 to 1937. At the meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics held in Rio de Janeiro, January 15-28, 1942, Dr. Turbay played a prominent role.

Two Poems

Juana de Ibarbourou

LA CORRIENTE DE CRISTAL ¹

Agua limpia, clara, clara, clara,
Tan limpia y tan clara que parece cristal.
Tan clara y tan limpia que yo la deseara
Convertida en la tela de un vestido nupcial.

¡Qué feliz la novia rubia que lo usara!
Tendría que ser buena, hermosa y virginal.
¿Se concibe nada más bello que agua clara
Transformada en la tela de un vestido nupcial?

¡Qué pena que no hayan en nuestro siglo hadas!
¡Que ya se han concluído todas las encantadas
Madrinas que creara la fábula oriental!

¡Yo quisiera un vestido hecho con agua clara!
¡Yo quisiera un vestido tal como lo soñara
Mirando esa corriente que parece cristal!

LA ROSA DE LOS VIENTOS ²

Todas las rosas de la tierra
Han dejado en mis dedos su fragancia
Traspasada de sol y de lluvia
Pero ahora yo quiero una, sólo una,
Celeste y única,
Que has de traerla tú, si me amas.

Aplica el oído
Al caracol resonante del mar.
Quizás en su murmullo sorprendas el secreto
De la ruta transoceánica
A través de la cual la podrás encontrar.

¹ From "Sus Mejores Poemas," Editorial Nascimento, Santiago, Chile, 1930. Es propiedad del autor. Inscripción No. 1041.

² From "La Rosa de los Vientos," Palacio del Libro, Montevideo y Buenos Aires.

Translations¹

James C. Bardin

CRYSTAL BROOK

This water—ah, so fair, so fair, so fair!
It flows like moving light—clear—shadowless—
So bright! So pure! Would I might weave its rare,
Smooth silk to make a wondrous wedding dress!

Oh, happy bride! So rich a robe to wear,
You must be chaste—you must have comeliness!
Can you conceive of anything more fair
Than water woven for your wedding dress?

How sad that friendly fairies live no more—
That wise enchanters cast not, as before,
Their spells to clothe our dross in loveliness—

I'd beg a boon of them beyond compare:
That I might weave this water, clean and fair,
Into sheer silk, to make a wedding dress!

COMPASS ROSE

All the roses of earth have left on my fingers
Their sun-born and rain-drenched fragrance.
But my insatiable heart still yearns for one—
Celestial and unique—
That I have not possessed!
Ah, if you love me,
You will find it for me!

Press against your ear
This conch shell murmurous of ocean.
Perhaps its whisper will tell you
Of a secret road of the sea
That will lead you to where my rose blooms.

¹ Copyright 1942 by the Pan American Union.

O alza los ojos a este claro cielo de Marzo,
Como un pastor caldeo, supersticioso y pensativo.
Tal vez de la Vía Láctea se desprenda la estrella
Que ha de señalarte el camino.

Yo quiero la rosa de los vientos
¡La que ninguna mujer ha tenido
En la cintura ni en los cabellos!

Como un juguete fantástico
La haré girar entre mis dedos.
A tí, Bolivia, te mandaré el aliento del trópico,
Y a tí, Brasil,
El pampero que huele a llanuras de trébol.

Parada en el ángulo extremo de nuestro puerto,
Reiré feliz y maravillada,
Haciendo bailar mi rosa.
Feliz de poseer el don divino de dar
Un soplo cálido a la altiplanicie helada
Y una corriente fresca al horno tropical.

Tú, indio aterido, vas a tener
El tesoro insoñado de un cocotero,
O un árbol de café.

Y barrerá la costa crepitante de Santos
(Oh, pobres negros de los ingenios!)
El abanico tónico e imponderable
De los vientos sudeños.

Si tú me quieres,
Anda, ve a buscarme esa flor sin igual.
La Meteorología es una vieja
Indiferente y sin amor.
Entre mis dedos ágiles de piedad
La rosa de los vientos
Se abrirá como una bendición.

Or lift your eyes to this bright March sky,
Like a Chaldean shepherd, superstitious and wistful.
Mayhap a star of the Milky Way will move from its track
And help you to find the path.

Bring me the compass rose—
The rose that no woman has ever worn
At her waist or in her hair!

I shall make it spin in my fingers
Like a fantastic toy!
To you, Bolivia, it will give me power to send
A breath of the burning tropics—
And to you, Brazil,
A plains-wind fragrant of clover meadows.

Standing on sea-wet sands near my little house,
I shall laugh and be filled with wonder
As my rose spins round and round!
Oh, what joy to possess
The God-like power to send
A little warmth to frozen plateaus,
And a breath of coolness to beaches tormented by sun!

Oh, upland Indian,
You shall soon possess
The undreamed-of treasure of coco-palms,
Or a blossoming coffee tree.

And over the sun-stricken coast of Santos
(Oh, poor Negroes, weary of toil!)
I shall send a reviving gale
From the lonely and frost-whitened pampas!

If you love me, go—
Find me that wondrous rose!
The ruler of seasons is an aged crone,
Indifferent and loveless—
But held in my fingers, trembling with pity,
The rose of the winds will open its heart
And break her evil magic!

Unknown Beauty in Southern Chile

RUTH SEDGWICK

*Associate Professor of Spanish,
Mount Holyoke College*

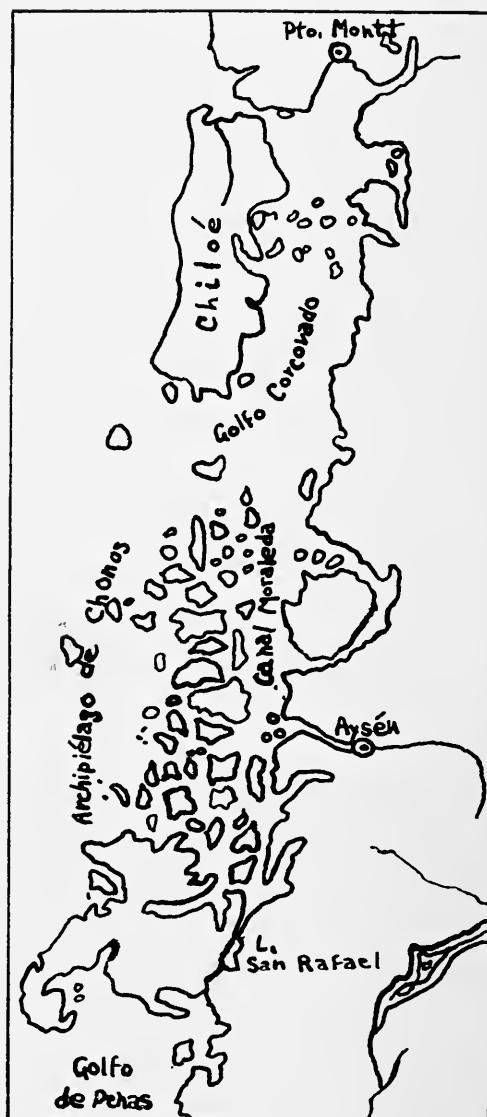
AYSÉN, a mere trading post before 1928, when the region was made a national territory, can be called the El Dorado of present day Chile. Modern conquistadors, attracted by rumors of mineral wealth and fertile soil, have been urged by the Government to open up these untouched riches. The population of the town has now risen to five thousand.

During the summer season, January and February, at least one boat a week connects the region with the mainland. The trip is made from Puerto Montt, the jumping-off port of southern Chile, whose harbor is always crowded with freighters and passenger boats from Punta Arenas on the Strait of Magellan and intermediate settlements on the fiords.

The steamer first touches at the Archipelago of Chiloé. The largest island, from which the group takes its name, is picturesquely bordered with a few towns and many fishing hamlets consisting of wooden houses clustered around a church. The hillsides are veritable patchwork quilts of yellow wheat fields and dark green plots of potatoes, which also grow wild on the island. Farther inland virgin forests thickly mass the mountain sides.

When the boat leaves Chiloé to cross the dancing Golfo¹ de Corcovado, the view of the snow-capped Andes is magnificent, if one is fortunate enough to have a pleasant day. (The Chilotes say it rains thirteen months of the year.) All along

¹ Bay.



PART OF SOUTHERN CHILE

Between about 41° and 47° south latitude.

the east, as far north and south as the eye can reach, one sees a continuous range of white peaks—Michinmáhuída, Corcovado, the Yantales, Melimoya.

Once across the Gulf, the boat enters the series of fiords, called *Canales*, that lead to Aysén. The steamer picks its way among

the hundreds of small islands that dot the Canal Moraleda, and turning sharp east, enters the Estero² Aysén. At the Río³ Aysén a halt has to be made to await the tide that will carry the boat upstream. The scenery in this spot is gorgeous, for the boat is almost locked in by mountains capped with glaciers.

The approach to the town is made between bright green river banks, in a region where one would expect to see only bare rocks. An almost semitropical underbrush is entwined with native bamboo. Against the blue sky are silhouetted the dainty branches of the graceful *coigüe* tree (*Nothofagus Dombeyi*). In clearings stand out small farmhouses of weathered dark wood, with red fronts and thatched or shingled roofs. Around the farms fences are built, to protect gardens of sturdy

potato plants and pastures dotted with grazing sheep.

The river becomes so narrow that it seems as though the stern of the boat would hit the bank as it twists around the sharp curves. Just beyond one of the bends, our destination is finally visible. Apparently the whole town has turned out to greet the steamer, even women with babies in their arms and barking dogs. The police band has come to serenade the excursionists. It is a gala occasion for the boat to dock in pleasant weather, after three months of continuous rain.

Aysén looks as new as it is, and reminds one of towns in the gold-rush days of the western United States. The wooden houses are comfortable, but not attractive. The main square, however, is well laid out, with many bright flowers, and has in

² Inlet.

³ River.



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick

EXCURSIONISTS IN SOUTHERN CHILE

Many beautiful trips can be made through the bays and fiords of southern Chile in boats plying out of Puerto Montt.



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick

A VIEW ON THE RÍO AYSÉN

the background a snow-capped peak towering close by.

Living in Aysén is expensive because many foodstuffs have to be brought from afar. High prices are paid for certain green vegetables and for tropical fruits, so common in central Chile. Nevertheless temperate-climate fruits, especially delicious large apples, are raised in the region. Although there are great agricultural possibilities in the whole territory, the exports to other parts of Chile now consist principally of sheep and cattle. Our boat loaded enormous bales of wool, and also some protesting sheep. The dense virgin forests will be the basis for a valuable industry in the future.

Some of the boats that go to Aysén in the summer also make the trip to the Laguna ⁴ de San Rafael, reaching Puerto Montt again in just a week. To go to the Laguna the steamship retraces its course to

⁴ *Lake.*

the Canal Moraleda, but instead of continuing north, goes south again, through a narrower fiord called Canal Costa. There it enters the Estero Elefantes and the Golfo Elefantes, which is connected by the Río Témpanos with the Laguna.

San Rafael is no longer a lake, because perhaps as recently as fifty years ago icebergs cut through the narrow neck of land at the north, thus forming the Río Témpanos (Iceberg). So the Laguna now is connected with the fiords that lead to the Golfo de Corcovado and the Pacific Ocean. It is said that the tides reach into the Laguna.

The first stop in the Laguna is Ofqui, a cluster of houses occupied by men who are digging the canal that will open the Aysén region to the Pacific Ocean at the south.

The boat next crosses the Laguna, to approach the famous glacier called El Ventisquero ⁵ San Rafael, or El Ventis-

⁵ *Glacier.*

quero San Valentín. San Rafael is one of three glaciers that are born on the sides of San Valentín, a twelve-thousand-foot peak near the Argentine border. The most northern of the three, El Ventisquero Guala, is passed on the way to Ofqui. The most southern, El Ventisquero San Quintín, empties just south of the Laguna, into the Golfo de San Esteban.

San Rafael is the most beautiful of the three. It flows down through a cut in the mountains several miles wide, and sharply drops off into the water in a ten- to twenty-foot precipice filled with chasms and grottoes that are cut deep into the end of the ice mass.

On a sunny day the ice shines with many colors. On a cloudy day it is just as fascinating, with weird shades of blue, ranging from a white-blue on the wave-like peaks to a deep inky blue in the hollows of the crevasses. At the sides the massive moun-

tains rise in black contrast to the blue ice.

Keeping a safe distance, the captain orders the whistle to be blown. A terrific roar is heard as the end of the glacier cracks into a million pieces that crash down into the water. Row upon row of these pieces have formed a thick ice pack at the foot of the glacier, while other icebergs have gradually floated into all corners of the Laguna, making steamer progress slow and precarious.

Under the clouded sky the icebergs are blue, whitish on top, and dark in the crevices. One sees only about a twelfth of the total mass, that stretches far below the surface. Some pieces look like birds, and others have sharp points that resemble the ears of a fantastic animal. Black ducks and white gulls perched on the icebergs ride down the current with complete unconcern for cold feet.

A sailor in a small boat lassooed a little



Photograph by Ruth Sedgwick

THE HOTEL NEAR THE SAN RAFAEL GLACIER

Fishing and small-boat trips can be taken from this comfortable hotel, recently opened by the Chilean Government.

piece of ice that looked exactly like a chicken and slowly towed it up to the steamer. The crane was put into position to lift the ice onto the deck, but as the block was being raised, the neck of the piece cracked off, and the hoped-for refrigerator went floating down the Laguna.

On the shore not far from the glacier the Chilean Government has recently opened a hotel, which advertises fishing and small-boat trips close to the ice floe. In the future the Laguna will be a favorite summer resort for Chileans and foreigners.

When the Ofqui canal is finished a safer

and more direct route will be opened for small boats sailing from Chiloé to the Strait of Magellan. This route will lead through the Laguna de San Rafael and the Ofqui canal into the Río Negro, the Río San Tadeo, and the Golfo de San Esteban. Boats will then not have to cross the dangerous Golfo de Penas, but can keep close to its eastern shore. From there they will continue through the usual southern fiords to the Strait. This new route will provide another outlet for Aysén's products, and will surely bring a boom to the territory.



A CHILEAN GLACIER

On a sunny day the ice shines with many colors, and in cloudy weather the many weird shades of blue are likewise fascinating.

Sources of Information on Social and Labor Problems in Brazil

EUGENE D. OWEN

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Part II

THE GOVERNMENT of Brazil is doing ever more thorough work in the computation of index numbers of cost of living. *Números Índices (Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, February 1938, pp. 321–337, and March 1938, pp. 349–359) is a popular discussion, with examples of various kinds of simple index numbers of cost of living, the methods and effects of weighting, the method used in computing index numbers through 1937, and a proposed plan for 1938 (using about 150 cities in all parts of Brazil), with the first half of January 1935 as base. There are statistics of computations in 1935–1937, which bring out the mean for all Brazil for 1937. The index is based on the retail prices of 19 articles of prime necessity, and the formula used is the weighted geometric index. All but two issues of the *Boletim* through 1940, beginning with August 1938, contain some index numbers; completed series for 1938 and 1939 are shown in the *Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, April 1939 (pp. 341–351) and March 1940 (pp. 333–365). They are given by months for each of 277 municipalities for 1938 and 890 municipalities for 1939, with only a rela-

tively few figures missing. The municipalities are scattered throughout Brazil, and thus speak for most parts of the Republic. An important element in the computation of the index numbers is the retail price scale. *Preços dos Gêneros Consumidos pela Classe Proletária (Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, June 1940, pp. 319–332) gives the retail prices of each of 19 articles of prime necessity consumed by the working class in each of 106 cities for December 1939, with the general index numbers for the 19 articles for each city. Only a few figures are missing. All but two issues of the *Boletim* through 1940, beginning with August 1935, show index numbers of retail prices of articles of prime necessity, based on January 1935.

Inextricably linked with the problem of the cost of living is that of wages, and Brazil has a general system of minimum-wage fixing. *Salário Mínimo* (Rio de Janeiro, Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio, 1940, 566 pp.) reproduces Brazilian legislation through August 31, 1940, on the subject of the minimum wage, giving statistics of actual wages in Brazil and the theory of the minimum wage. For the convenience of English readers, *Minimum Wage Rates for Brazil, 1940* [*Labor Conditions in Latin America*, No. 5 (Serial No. R. 1139), pp. 3–6, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington],

Part I appeared in the September 1942 issue of the BULLETIN. It discussed material on the social and labor situation in general, statistics, periodicals, indexes to and collections of laws, administration of social legislation, civil service, and cost of living.

gives the minimum wage rates for adult workers in Brazil, by geographical divisions and localities, with percentages to be discounted for various payments in kind, according to a decree law of May 1940, but before this had been amended by one of August 31, 1940. Statistics of agricultural wages are shown in *Salários Agrícolas (Revista de Economia e Estatística, Rio de Janeiro, Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística, January 1938, pp. 89-99 and July 1938, pp. 324-334)*. These tables show the most frequent, maximum, minimum, and average wages for each of 19 kinds of agricultural workers (such as various kinds of field workers, skilled craftsmen, farm managers, and book-keepers) by states, etc., for 1935 and 1936. In one case separate figures are presented for men, women, and minors.

Closely associated with the worker's wages are his hours and his leisure time. In *Questões Trabalhistas*, by João Antero de Carvalho (Rio de Janeiro, Editora "Revista do Trabalho," 1940, 94 pp.) the author discusses the application of Brazilian legislation on paid vacations, gives certain court decisions applying to general social and labor legislation, and the text of Brazilian legislation on paid vacations in force, enacted through January 31, 1940.

As a means of supplementing otherwise inadequate wages, consumers' and other cooperatives have taken deep root in Brazil. An easily available account is *Agricultural Cooperatives in Rio Grande do Sul*, by Fabio Luz Filho (Washington, Pan American Union, Division of Agricultural Cooperation, 1938, 28 pp. processed). This publication, No. 11 in the Pan American Union series on cooperatives, gives a brief summary of cooperatives throughout Brazil, followed by characterization of the German "Colonial Unions," of a number of kinds of grape

and wine cooperatives, and of various agricultural and livestock cooperatives. These are the types of agricultural cooperatives found in the Brazilian State of Rio Grande do Sul. An account of a notable single cooperative is found in *Pequena História da "Cinta Dourada" Paulistana*, published in *Economia* (São Paulo, June 1941, pp. 30-33). This annual report for 1940 of the manager of the Cooperativa Agrícola de Cotia (said to be the most important of its kind in South America and composed of the small farmers around São Paulo) deals with activities in selling, buying, credit, social assistance, transportation, technical improvement of labor, scientific improvement of the land, and Government supervision over production.

Especially during the last decade Brazil has done much in the field of social assistance and welfare. A recent account of child welfare work in Brazil is *Child Welfare Legislation in Brazil*, by Anna Kalet Smith (*The Child*, Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, November-December 1940, pp. 118-121). This article describes the historical development of child-welfare work in Brazil, provisions in the constitutions of 1934 and 1937, Federal child health and welfare work and Federal aid to private child-welfare institutions, and the creation and set-up of the Children's Bureau, established by a decree-law of February 17, 1940. A much more detailed account for the Federal District is *A Infância Desamparada*, by A. Saboia Lima (Rio de Janeiro, Juízo de Menores, 1939, 728, xiv pp.). This is a statistical report of the activities of the Children's Court of the Federal District for the years 1937 and 1938 in caring for abandoned and delinquent children. It suggests reforms in the services for such children connected with the Court, and gives information concerning the educational work carried on by the

Court, and concerning the supervision of the work of minors, as well as much additional information and propaganda.

Another phase of the welfare work carried on in Brazil, that of pension insurance, has been extensively written up in summary and reforms suggested. One account, particularly valuable to use in the United States because it was written for readers in another land, is that of Julio Bustos A., entitled *La Previsión Social en el Brasil* (*Previsión Social*, Santiago de Chile, March-April 1938, pp. 501-525). This account of social welfare in Brazil lists legislation on the subject enacted through 1936 and cites constitutional provisions, gives an account of the distinctive features of the institutions of social welfare and a summary of their operation through 1936, describes the legislation concerning workmen's compensation for industrial accidents and occupational diseases, and furnishes statistics on social welfare through 1935. An article written for propaganda purposes entitled *A Organização das Instituições de Seguros Sociais no Brasil*, by Henrique Eboli (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, March 1939, pp. 227-245) gives much useful information while presenting its argument. It gives statistics of contributors to certain funds at the end of 1937, and estimated receipts and expenditures for 1939, and urges the unification of the 104 social insurance funds in Brazil into 6 institutes, showing economies possible through such reorganization. *O Seguro Social no Brasil em 1937* (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, October 1939, pp. 267-281) is a financial report of social insurance institutes and funds in Brazil for 1937, showing for states and for individual retirement and pension institutes receipts from employers, insured persons, the Government, and other sources; expenditures

and amounts invested in bonds of the public debt and in the reserve fund, with explanatory notes. One of the best and most recent accounts of social insurance in Brazil is *Os Institutos e Caixas de Aposentadoria e Pensões*, by Pedro Cintra Ferreira (*Revista do Trabalho*, Rio de Janeiro, August 1940, pp. 369-372). This is a summary of certain aspects of the system of retirement and pension institutes and funds in Brazil, with some evaluation of merits and defects, and suggestions for improvement. It deals with the questions of administration, ordinary retirement, medico-hospital service, supervision, and investment of funds. Some statistics are given.

A specialized field of social insurance is that of workmen's compensation. *Acidentes do Trabalho, Lei, Regulamento, Tabelas de Indenizações, Outras Notas*, by Helvecio Xavier Lopes and Gilberto Flores (Rio de Janeiro, Editora "Revista do Trabalho," 1939(?), 63 pp., second edition revised) reproduces Brazilian legislation concerning workmen's compensation through July 1, 1937, including laws, regulations, tables of indemnities, and other materials of a legal nature. By a resolution of April 25, 1941, the Minister of Labor, Industry, and Commerce appointed a commission to draw up a code of industrial hygiene, which was especially concerned with the prevention of industrial accidents and occupational diseases. Such a code should result in further advancement in the field of social welfare. A commentary on it and the text of the legislation establishing the commission are found in *Codificação das Normas de Higiene do Trabalho*, by Zey Bueno (*Revista do Trabalho*, Rio de Janeiro, May 1941, p. 224).

In order to aid the working class of Brazil to solve its own problems of an economic nature, the Government has enacted legislation supervising and regulating occupational associations. A very

recent account of the general movement is contained in the *International Labor Review* for November 1941 (pp. 509-514). It is a part of the longer article by Paula Lopes already referred to and deals with the history and legal regulation of occupational associations. Two recent legislative acts, adopted in the light of experience in Government supervision, have helped to make the regulation more effective. Decree law No. 2381 of July 9, 1940 (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, September 1940, pp. 27-47) classifies occupations for purposes of forming associations and provides for associations of higher order, based upon decree law No. 1402 of July 5, 1939. A ministerial order of August 22, 1940 (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, September 1940, pp. 88-102) furnishes a model occupational association constitution, in response to requests from persons required to form such associations in conformity with the legislation of July 5, 1939.

A census of occupational associations in Brazil as of June 1938 has been made available in a preliminary report, showing the larger aspects of the situation and certain detailed materials about the associations which go to form those groupings of higher order (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, September 1938, pp. 331-345). A much more detailed account is found in the *Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio* for April 1940 (pp. 93-105), which summarizes the membership in associations of employees, employers, members of the liberal professions, and of persons working on their own account, for all of Brazil in 1937 and 1938, as shown by the census of occupational associations of 1938. The statistics are given by sex, by industrial activity, and by geographical division, and whether composed of aliens or nationals.

There is a general summary, which includes conclusions reached through an examination of the figures. Much more detailed information relating to the occupational association census of 1938 for the Federal District, covering only the year 1938, is to be found in *Censo Sindical Carioca de 1938* (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, November 1939, pp. 77-98; December 1939, pp. 126-164; January 1940, pp. 152-190; and February 1940, pp. 132-149).

Often workers are able to secure better working conditions through a collective labor agreement. Two articles which deal with this question are especially worthy of mention. In *Contrato Coletivo do Trabalho*, by Irineu de Mello Machado (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, January 1938, pp. 73-87), the author points out the distinction between individual and collective labor contracts in general and in various countries, gives a summary of existing Brazilian legislation dealing with the collective labor contract at the time of the adoption of the Constitution of 1937, and discusses legal theories as to the nature of the collective labor contract. In *Conceito da Convenção Coletiva*, by Francisco José de Oliveira Vianna (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio de Janeiro, November, 1938, pp. 125-133; and December 1938, pp. 98-115) a discussion of individual and collective labor contracts and collective labor agreements from the theoretical viewpoint precedes a description of Brazilian legislation regulating collective labor agreements, and a discussion of the bearing of pending legislative action dealing with labor courts upon that subject.

In order to secure to workers the rights and benefits provided in the collective labor agreements, some special adminis-

tration of justice is needed. The most up-to-date and extensive book on the subject is *Justiça do Trabalho*, by Araujo Castro (Rio de Janeiro, Livraria-Editora Freitas Bastos, 1941, 521 pp.). The book is an exhaustive treatise on present-day procedure for the settlement of labor disputes in Brazil, written by a sympathetic exponent. It includes some historical background, preceded by a brief summary of the special procedure for administration of justice in labor disputes in 23 other countries, and by the text of Brazilian legislation on the subject enacted from May 2, 1939, through December 13, 1940, and some regulations issued by the National Labor Council dated May 30, 1941. A notable periodical article on the subject is *Justiça do Trabalho* (*Revista do Trabalho*, Rio de Janeiro, May 1941, pp. 14-70). This article gives the text of current legislation organizing the administration of justice in labor disputes enacted through December 12, 1940, preceded by an exhaustive alphabetical and topical index of this and other related legislation. Legislation providing for the labor courts authorized in the preceding legislation was enacted on April 30, 1941 and thereabouts. The legislation of April 30, 1941, is reprinted in the above source but is not indexed.

As Brazil is a country largely agricultural, much attention has been given to the economics of agriculture. *Aplicação Rural da Justiça Social*, by João C. Fairbanks (*Economia*, São Paulo, June 1941, pp. 25-29; and July 1941, pp. 23-24) gives a summary of legal provisions in Brazil protecting the rights of the agricultural workers; the concluding article is largely on economic theory. A discussion of the regional problems of agriculture in São Paulo is *O Trabalho Agrícola em São Paulo*, by Oscar Motta Mello (*Boletim do Ministério do Trabalho, Indústria, e Comércio*, Rio

de Janeiro, October 1938, pp. 293-306). This is a brief history of agriculture in São Paulo and of its agricultural population, and a discussion of persons practicing different types of agriculture: renters (wages in coffee, sugar cane, cotton, banana, and orange production), wage-earners under agreement, share-croppers, and casual laborers. It treats also of payments in kind to agricultural laborers and legal protection of farm labor.

As a country with vast unexploited wealth, Brazil has been and still is the land of hope for many aliens. One of the oldest treatises still to have value with regard to the situation of aliens is *A Condição Jurídica do Estrangeiro no Brasil*, by Ruy de Oliveira Santos (Rio de Janeiro, A. Coelho Branco Filho, 1938, 262 pp.). It covers the legal situation of aliens in Brazil, in relation to immigration and naturalization, commerce, deportation, etc. A brief section on engaging in commerce is based on decree law No. 341 of March 17, 1938. *Disposições Legais Vigentes sobre Imigração e Permanência de Estrangeiros no Brasil* (São Paulo, Cultura Moderna, 1939, 265 pp.) is a compilation of Brazilian legislation on the immigration and residence of aliens in the country, enacted from May 4, 1938, through March 14, 1939. The Brazilian Departamento de Estatística e Publicidade of the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce issued as a pamphlet entitled *Justiça e Assistência ao Trabalhador Nacional* (Rio de Janeiro, 1939, illus.) the legislation enacted to celebrate Labor Day, May 1, 1939. This legislation provided for labor courts, the establishment of hygienic eating places for workers, and vocational training for workers and their children. Pertinent documents are reprinted. A brief summary on Brazilian legislation restricting activities of aliens in Brazil is entitled "Legal Restrictions on Employment of Aliens in . . . Brazil"

(*Labor Conditions in Latin America*, No. 7, Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics pamphlet, Serial No. R. 1241, pp. 5-10). This is a summary of Brazilian legislation enacted through May 6, 1940, restricting employment and other activities of aliens in Brazil.

The above references and numerous others are available to inform those persons interested in the past, present, and future of Brazil about conditions and prospects in what is perhaps the world's largest and richest region still for the most part awaiting the development and extension of industry from the eastern seaboard into the interior.

The principal libraries in Washington, D. C., so far as materials relating to Brazil are concerned, are: the Library of the United States Department of Labor (the most highly specialized so far as the materials in this paper are concerned), the Columbus Memorial Library of the

Pan American Union, and the Library of Congress. None of these libraries has all of the periodicals and other publications listed above, but all of them have some of the periodicals in more or less complete files, and all have been consulted in the preparation of this paper. The best source of general information concerning Brazil is the Brazilian Information Bureau of the Government of Brazil, which is under the direction of Mr. Francisco Silva, Jr., with offices at 551 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Two sources of unpublished information on social and labor problems in Brazil which are available in Washington are the Division of Social and Labor Information of the Pan American Union and the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. The constantly growing collection of materials on Brazil is making more readily accessible information on a wide variety of social and labor problems in that large Republic.



Courtesy of Sigifredo H. Rodriguez

AFTER A PARADE IN MEXICO

The Justo Sierra School in Monterrey organized a parade which concluded with massing the flags of all the Pan American republics in front of the state capitol.

Pan American Day

Liberty, Sancho, is one of the most precious gifts bestowed by heaven upon men; all the treasures of earth and sea cannot equal it; for liberty, as for their honor, men can and should risk their lives; and, on the contrary, captivity is the greatest ill that can befall them. . . .

"Don Quixote," Part II, Chapter LVIII

BETWEEN Pan American Day, April 14, 1941, and Pan American Day, April 14, 1942, that vast and growing movement among the nations of the Western Hemisphere that has come to be called Pan Americanism was given a new impetus. Not that it was especially in need of any extraneous impulse, for the trail leading toward a perfect and complete understanding and solidarity among the Ameri-

can nations, blazed more than a century ago by the far-seeing minds of the fathers of American independence, has been lengthened, broadened, straightened, smoothed, and improved through the years until, to carry out the figure, it more nearly resembles a modern super-highway than the tortuous footpath through the wilderness which it was in its early days.

In the time between Pan American Day

1941 and Pan American Day 1942 the great war, finally enfolding the whole world, struck the Western Hemisphere. April 14, 1942, found ten of the American Republics at war and eight others with severed diplomatic and commercial relations with the Axis powers. The number at war has since been increased to twelve. The sentiments of continental unity that animated the action of the Latin American Republics after the Japanese attack on the United States at Pearl Harbor are reflected in the decree of Costa Rica. That country, which declared war on Japan even before the United States did so, outlined its position as follows:

The imperative mandate of national honor and our obligations as members of the Pan American family make it impossible for us to look with

indifference on the present conflict; but on the contrary, oblige us to face it jointly with the United States of America, and notwithstanding our limited resources, to assume the same risks in this emergency, contributing everything in our power to the common defense of the continent.

That was Pan Americanism in action!

It is now a long time since Pan American Day 1942; the continent is almost on the eve of Pan American Day 1943. In 1942 there were celebrations, official and unofficial, in every country of the Western Hemisphere, in observance of the day that in 1931 was set aside as one on which the nations of America would annually commemorate their friendship, cooperation, and common adherence to the principles of democracy. The 1942 celebrations were tempered, to be sure, by the war, but the fact that they were perhaps somewhat simpler in form than in peace times had only the effect of increasing their significance and fervor. As the President of Mexico said in a radio address, "The celebration of Pan American Day again brings together the people of America before the altar of their liberties." Newspapers and periodicals of Latin America and the scores of communications received at the Pan American Union concerning the celebrations furnish striking evidence that the men of America, the *free* men of America, of whom Ezequiel Padilla so impressively spoke at the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics at Rio de Janeiro, did indeed gather in government palaces, auditoriums, halls of learning, and in smaller and humbler schoolrooms, clubs, and other meeting places, to commemorate their hemisphere's heritage of liberty and to dedicate themselves anew to their present responsibility of defending it.

Official celebrations of the day in the various American countries followed much the same pattern everywhere. In some



AN OFFICIAL SPEAKER AT SAN JOSÉ
HIGH SCHOOL

Guillermo Benedetti, Chancellor of the Pan-
amanian Consulate, San Francisco, stands with
F. G. Murdock, principal of the high school.



Courtesy of the Escuela Normal de Maestras

A CELEBRATION IN CARACAS

Children in the elementary grades attached to the Normal School formed a huge outline map of Pan America.



Courtesy of Ida McDaniel

A FLAG CEREMONY AT PHOENIX

The Junior Pan American League, Phoenix Union High School Chapter, celebrated with an annual banquet.

countries, as in Argentina, Colombia, El Salvador, Haiti, Mexico, Panama, and Peru, the Presidents themselves delivered addresses or issued pronouncements paying tribute to the American ideals of continental fraternity and united action. In Washington President Roosevelt received and informally addressed the members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union. In other nations—Brazil and Chile, for example—the Ministers of Foreign Affairs gave the principal addresses at official functions. In still other countries, cabinet members, diplomats, and prominent educators made the keynote speeches.

Speaking at an assembly at the University of Concepción, Chile, on April 14, 1942, Professor Enrique Molina of the School of Philosophy, University of Chile, in phrases that were typical of scores of addresses given elsewhere on the same day, said: "Day of the Americas, day of remembrance, of examination of conscience,

of austerity of spirit, and of promises of the heart! Since the light of history dawned on this continent, through how many stages America has victoriously passed! Stages that have been letters patent to the noble title of *American!* . . . Pan Americanism is a spiritual, cultural, and juridical network that unites the nations of the New World. While preserving their autonomy as sovereign and equal entities, they pursue reciprocal understanding, the maintenance of peace, adherence to juridical principles in their relations, and mutual assistance for the achievement of progress. . . . Now for the first time in the history of mankind the panorama of America presents the magnificent spectacle of the nations of an entire continent united, by free and spontaneous decision, in defense of their existence and culture. . . ."

Pan American Day 1942 was not only a day of commemoration; it was pervaded with a spirit of awareness. The twenty-one American Republics unanimously expressed themselves, through official and unofficial spokesmen, through the words of the great and the small, through the lips of citizens from presidents to school children, as being alive to the fact that if they hope to continue free, they must show themselves worthy of the liberty won for them by their forefathers; and united continental action was everywhere proclaimed as the means to that end. That theme, without variations, was sung throughout America on Pan American Day 1942 and now as Pan American Day 1943 approaches, America is engraving that theme indelibly on history's record by a continental unity of purpose and action unheard of since the world began.

Each nation of the Western Hemisphere has written its own chapter in the story of Pan Americanism. In 1941-42 another chapter was written, but this time it was a joint work, in which all twenty-one



Courtesy of J. B. Costanzo

A PROJECT OF THE COLUMBIA
GRAMMAR SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY



Courtesy of Herminio Portell Vilá

A POETRY RECITAL IN HABANA

Eduardo Casado reciting Latin American poetry at the Hispano-Cuban Cultural Institute.

nations collaborated. All the words said in the past, during Pan American Day celebrations and in Pan American conferences when the policy of continental unity was being slowly and sometimes painfully evolved and made articulate—all the chapters already written, in short—suddenly took on a more exact and exacting meaning. Declarations became acts; obligations found their realizations. On Pan American Day 1942 homage was paid in America to no empty phrase, no tepid ideal; rather, a successful experiment in spontaneous hemispheric union, unparalleled in history, received its due tribute.

In 1943 still another chapter will be added to Pan Americanism's story. On April 14, 1943, there will assuredly be celebrations and remembrances of and homage to the ideals of Pan Americanism in every nation of the continent. But the salient characteristic of present-day Pan Americanism is that it is not a matter of one day, or a dozen speeches, or a hundred programs. All these are happy and inspiring reminders of the principles of democracy that prevail in the American continent, but they serve most to emphasize that Pan Americanism is a living, working reality and that its Day throughout the hemisphere is one that has no end.

Winners in Inter-American Essay Competition

AWARD of four-year university scholarships to Srta. Martha Bascopé Vargas, La Paz, Bolivia, and to Stanley Holder, Las Cruces, New Mexico, high school students participating in the essay competition called "The Inter-American Forum," was announced on September 8, 1942 by Dr. L. S. Rowe, Director General of the Pan American Union. Two hundred other awards were made to young men and women earning state and national honors.

The scholarships provide for all expenses during four years at college, including

tuition, maintenance, special fees and necessary travel to and from the institutions of their choice. A condition of the award is that the successful students study at least two years in a country other than their own.

Srta. Bascopé Vargas is a student at Colegio Mariscal Braun in La Paz, Bolivia, where the competition, as in other Latin American countries, was conducted under the guidance of the Ministry of Education in cooperation with the Pan American Union. Stanley Holder graduated last



MARTHA BASCOPÉ VARGAS



STANLEY HOLDER

May from Las Cruces Union High School. He is planning a modern language course in preparation for a career in diplomacy and has entered Georgetown University.

Early this year secondary school students of the 21 nations, members of the Pan American Union, were invited to write essays on the subject *What Inter-American Cooperation Means to My Country*. Students in a majority of the high schools of the Americas participated in the contest. The best papers from the 20 Latin American countries were chosen, and the best from each State in the United States.

The former were submitted to United States judges, who awarded the scholarship. Those who reviewed the Spanish, French and Portuguese papers were Dr. Roy Tasco Davis, former United States Minister to Costa Rica and to Panama; Dr. Henry Grattan Doyle, Director of the Inter-American Training Center, George Washington University; and Dr. Lewis

Hanke, Chief of the Hispanic Foundation of the Library of Congress.

In like manner the best papers from the United States were submitted to Latin American judges. It was the decision of the Ambassador of Venezuela, Dr. Diógenes Escalante; the Ambassador of Chile, Dr. Rodolfo Michels; and the Minister of Guatemala, Dr. Adrián Recinos, that gave the scholarship to Stanley Holder, of New Mexico.

As state winner for New Mexico, he also receives a check for fifty dollars and a certificate of award signed by Cordell Hull, Secretary of State of the United States, acting as chairman of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, and by Dr. Rowe, Director General.

Papers were numbered so that the judges did not know the identity of the student to whom they were making so large an award. The scholarships are valued at six thousand dollars.

The prize-winning essays follow.

LO QUE SIGNIFICA PARA MI PAÍS LA COOPERACIÓN INTERAMERICANA

MARTHA BASCOPÉ VARGAS

El significado de esta cooperación es el de un sueño que parecía imposible de realizar; de algo que la mayoría de los americanos sólo presentían como ideal cada vez más cercano. La guerra actual ha logrado el milagro de acercar a los hombres; de unirlos frente al peligro común de la pérdida de su libertad o la mengua de su poderío. La unión intercontinental es una necesidad imprescindible; una necesidad que se hace más y más imperiosa. Ya se manifestó ese sentir común en los tiempos coloniales, tratando de aplicar el principio de sus libertadores. Los americanos lo sabían subconscientemente. No son los conquistadores quienes crean la suprema necesidad de solidarizar a los pueblos; quizá ellos la hagan aparecer más factible. Lo que antes era, aun después de la terrible experiencia de la primera guerra mundial, una hermosa ilusión, algo así como una nueva doctrina, una nueva revelación es ahora

una realidad en sus tres aspectos: político, económico y cultural.

Respecto al primero, Bolivia se encuentra en una situación excepcional. Rodeada completamente por países grandes y prósperos, necesita del espíritu de cooperación americana que puedan prestarle, ya que ninguna nación del mundo, por fuerte y rica que sea, puede mantenerse sola y aislada. Ya no hay murallas chinas. Y menos para Bolivia que depende económicamente del exterior, que no cuenta con industrias propias, que no fabrica máquinas y que no tiene suficiente población. Bolivia es la nación que más requiere de la cooperación de otros países del Continente porque posee las materias primas llamadas estratégicas (estaño, wolfram, antimonio, cobre, zinc, goma, quina), que si ahora son de emergencia, serán también utilizables después la guerra. De esta guerra en la que aprenderá el mundo—al fin—que quien posee riquezas debe estar prepara-

do para defenderlas contra todo y contra todos, hasta contra lo "imposible." Bolivia, en fin, que siente la urgencia de ser económica y políticamente libre, siguiendo el ejemplo de países como Estados Unidos, Argentina, y Perú, que poseen industrias propias y nos enseñan a aprovechar las ingentes riquezas del territorio nacional. ¡Que su cooperación nos ayude a producir lo que precisamos; que no nos consideren simplemente como posible mercado de todo, principalmente de artículos de primera necesidad; y que reconozcan las enormes posibilidades de nuestras tierras feraces y vírgenes, haciéndolas aptas para la colonización una vez que hayan sido saneadas! Inmensas extensiones benianas, cruceñas, tarijañas,¹ etc., están invadidas por endemias y epidemias que pueden ser vencidas como lo fueron en África, en Estados Unidos, en el Brasil, en la Argentina. Males que se extienden rápidamente y que si no son combatidos harán inhabitables muchos territorios más. Aun los valles de Cochabamba están siendo invadidos por el paludismo y la tuberculosis. Necesitamos investigadores; necesitamos vías que nos acerquen a lugares que sólo en el mapa figuran como nuestros; en fin, necesitamos máquinas y brazos.

Nosotros en cambio podemos dar materias primas de inmenso valor, tanto en tiempo de guerra como de paz. Podemos retribuir con petróleo si se nos ayuda a extraerlo y refinarlo, así como con maderas, ganado, cereales, goma, resinas, y con los mil y un productos que tenemos tan cerca . . . y tan lejos.

Podemos brindar tierra fértil al que venga de lejanas tierras buscando refugio humano. Nuestras leyes son generosas para el extranjero que busca ganar honradamente su pan. Para el que sepa reconocerlas y respetarlas.

Las dos terceras partes de la población boliviana están formadas por indios, quienes tienen iguales derechos a la vida y al bienestar que todos los demás habitantes del país. Tienen, sin saberlo,

¹ *Estos adjetivos se refieren a varias regiones de Bolivia: El Beni, Santa Cruz, y Tarija.*

los mismos deberes y los mismos derechos, por ejemplo, que el campesino norteamericano. Nosotros, americanos, debemos grabar en su alma virgen esa comprensión; debemos vencer el conformismo y apocamiento e inculcarles sentimientos de patria y humanidad. Y cuando esto se haya logrado, cuando sea una hermosa realidad, podrá decirse que cumplimos con nuestro deber de americanos y de hombres.

Los pueblos de América tenemos una gran semejanza de sangre, de intereses y de ideales. Nuestra historia, recién iniciada y ya intensa, nos lo dice. Los grandes hombres nos son comunes. La formación inmigratoria de las poblaciones, la mecanización de los campos, la difusión de las ciencias, trazan con claridad una sola senda para América. Para América Unida.

Debemos facilitar el advenimiento de esta realidad. Y debemos hacerlo desde los primeros años. El niño debe formar su voluntad en las escuelas, no basándola en la historia de civilizaciones desaparecidas, porque ninguna nación que imite puede ser grande, ni puede llegar a la meta que sus fundadores le señalaron. Nuestras escuelas deben despertar en el niño la conciencia de la americanidad. Pero no de una América cerrada, orgullosa, sino de una joven patria de la libertad, de la paz y del cristianismo. Nuestros padres no dejaron un mandato que cumplir. Hagámoslo y conservemos la herencia de libertad y de grandeza moral que nos legaron. Para ello, para cumplir este sagrado deber, hemos de educar al niño a base de sus cualidades y no de meras teorías. Los países hermanos habremos de formar en frente unido, con los mismos sistemas y doctrinas en los colegios y los mismos ideales en los espíritus.

Esto no es imposible. Verdad es que hay dificultades, enormes si se quiere, pero no insuperables. Si la cooperación interamericana es sincera, si todos podemos tener fe en ella y en la justicia, estas dificultades serán vencidas muy pronto. Y entonces, una nueva era de prosperidad empezará para América, y para el mundo entero.

WHAT INTER-AMERICAN COOPERATION MEANS TO MY COUNTRY

STANLEY HOLDER

THE developments in world affairs during the past decade have helped to convince the most devout isolationists that the destiny of every nation, politically independent though it may be, is inseparably linked with that of the other

nations. The richest nation on earth is neither self-sufficient nor immune to the problems and dangers of its neighbors.

There is one logical alternative to isolation: cooperation which embraces the phases of inter-

national life conducive to economic prosperity, mutual understanding, and permanent peace.

We are living in a world of change. We have seen rocking and falling institutions which have stood for centuries. Since the crumbling of the League of Nations, the Union of the Twenty-one American Republics remains the one successful international organization in the world. This Union was established "to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the nations of the American Continent by fostering economic, juridical, and cultural relations." Why has it lived when every other institution of its kind has fallen? What does inter-American cooperation mean to my country?

Economic cooperation is the most apparent advantage of Pan-Americanism. The importance of commerce can hardly be overdrawn, for international relations are primarily dependent upon satisfactory trade. The prosperity and living standard of a nation depend to a great extent upon its commerce. Especially since the beginning of the present war, inter-American economic cooperation has been a stabilizing factor in our own economic system as well as in that of the other American nations. The fosterage of inter-American commerce and the related phases of hemispheric economy has meant common gain almost without exception.

International cooperation must be based upon something stronger than economics in order to live and grow. There must be person-to-person understanding if true and lasting friendship is to be established. Cultural cooperation with the other American Republics has meant a great deal to the United States in our effort to convince our southern neighbors that we want and need their good-will. It has helped to erase the hatred and distrust with which the Latin Americans have justly regarded us because of our exploitation and interference in other years. Mutual understanding is a firm basis for peace, and inter-American cooperation has encouraged mutual understanding in every way.

My country, however, is one of great internal

wealth, with a population greater than the combined populations of all the other American nations. Therefore, economic cooperation is not so vital to us as it is to some of the smaller nations. Our nation is the melting pot of every culture and race on earth, and we have a lesson in understanding to learn at home. The fuller meaning, the true value of inter-American cooperation to my country, reaches higher than economic relations; it is rooted more deeply than cultural contact.

We are fighting a war today which is the result of intolerance, greed, and the failure of nations to recognize certain principles essential to the preservation of peace and the brotherhood of man. We have one hope for the future: peace, lasting peace, founded upon the Christian principles of tolerance, equality, and the acceptance of arbitration as the only reasonable solution of international problems. Pan Americanism is the embodiment of our hope; it is a symbol of what we are fighting to establish in the world.

We of the Americas need not search for a new order, for the principle of our cooperation is the solution for the problems that have baffled the greatest statesmen for centuries. We have shown the world that in spite of vastly divergent historical backgrounds, races, languages, national cultures and religions, we have achieved a lasting and successful union. Our Union is neither perfect nor complete. It must continue to grow and develop; it must change as its component nations change.

To my country, to all countries, inter-American cooperation is a pattern for a new world order which will prevent the recurrence of another war such as this. It is a living example of nations, great and small, working together in equality and concord for their common good, respecting the rights of each other, and cherishing peace as the first and greatest step toward prosperity and advancement. In that principle is the hope of the world.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parenthesis, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of

measures already published are inserted with letters following the number (*e. g.*, 2a).

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART VIII

ARGENTINA

11b₁. March 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 116,407, suspending the state of siege (see Argentina 4, BULLETIN, April 1942) on March 29 and April 12 in the Province of San Luis and on March 29 in the Province of La Rioja because of municipal elections on those days. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 11, 1942.)

15a. April 22, 1942. Presidential Decree authorizing the Ministry of Agriculture under specified conditions to issue export permits for rubber goods to those countries which allow crude rubber to be exported to Argentina. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 9, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, August 8, 1942.)

18. (Correction) May 13, 1942. Resolution, Ministry of Agriculture, regulating the exportation and reexportation of drugs or medicines and raw materials used in their preparation, in accordance with the provisions of Decree No. 117,860,

of April 15, 1942, which prohibited, with certain exceptions, the exportation of such products. (*Boletín Oficial*, May 20, 1942.)

19a. May 27, 1942. Decree, Ministry of Agriculture, providing that exports of tallow and animal fat require a previous export permit, which may be granted by the Ministry of Agriculture to firms registered with the Export and Industrial and Commercial Development Commission (*Comité de Exportación y de Estímulo Industrial y Comercial*), but only when the supply at normal prices of these products is assured for internal consumption. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, July 4, 1942.)

19b. June 5, 1942. Decree prohibiting the exportation and reexportation of burlap of jute or other textile fiber, as well as containers made of these fibers, whether empty or full, new or used, and authorizing the Ministry of Agriculture, under special conditions, to supply bags for the

export of certain products. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 25, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, August 8, 1942.)

19c. June 10, 1942. Presidential Decree providing that previous export permits must be obtained for the export of cotton fiber and cotton yarn. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 26, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, August 8, 1942.)

19d. June 15, 1942. Decree providing that the exportation of edible animal fats, compounds of the same, stearin, and vegetable oils no longer require a previous export permit (see 19a above). (*Boletín Oficial*, July 6, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, August 8, 1942.)

20a. June 26, 1942. Resolution, Ministry of Agriculture, supplementing Decree No. 118,431 of April 24, 1942 which prohibited the exportation of newsprint (see Argentina 17a BULLETIN, October 1942), by providing that a previous export permit must be obtained for exportation of paper cuttings and waste newsprint. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, August 8, 1942.)

20b. July 4, 1942. Resolution, Ministry of Agriculture, providing that the exportation of wheat, linseed, and corn may be effected only in bulk and that permission to export these products in bags will be granted only in cases where reasons of shipping convenience so demand. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, August 8, 1942.)

BOLIVIA

7. August 27, 1942. Executive Decree granting Brazil the status of a nonbelligerent in the present conflict, in accordance with Resolution XV of the Second Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs held in Habana. (Letter, Bolivian Embassy, Washington, D. C., to Pan American Union, August 27, 1942.)

BRAZIL

35a. August ?, 1942. Decree-law creating the Washington Agreements Control Commission (*Comissão de Controle dos Acordos de Washington*), to be composed of three persons headed by the Minister of Finance and charged with the duty of supervising the various agreements made between Brazil and the United States. (*News Bulletin*, American Brazilian Association, New York, August 10, 1942.)

35b. August 12, 1942. Presidential Decree naming Admiral Alvaro Rodriguez de Vasconcelos to represent the Brazilian Navy on the Inter-Ameri-

can Defense Commission in Washington. (*New York Times*, August 13, 1942.)

35c. August 19, 1942. Order placing all light-houses, flashing buoys, and other navigation aids along Brazil's coast under black-out regulations. (*Christian Science Monitor*, Boston, August 20, 1942.)

35d. August 20, 1942. Decree ordering that all German nationals, except diplomats, already on board two repatriation ships, should be seized and held in Brazil as hostages for Brazilians held at the German concentration camp at Compiègne, France. (*New York Herald Tribune*, August 21, 1942.)

35e. August 21, 1942. Announcement by the President of Brazil that Brazilian merchant ships moving through the usual sea lanes will be conveyed by Brazilian Navy and Air Forces in cooperation with United States Navy and Air Forces. (*Christian Science Monitor*, Boston, August 21, 1942.)

37. August 24, 1942. Decree ordering the confiscation of the Transatlantic German Bank, the Germanic Bank of South America, and the French-Italian Bank of South America. (*New York Times*, August 25, 1942.)

38. August 24, 1942. Decree ordering the outright confiscation and incorporation into the national patrimony of fifteen German and Italian ships which had formerly been seized under an agreement with Germany and Italy to share with those countries the proceeds earned during the period of usage and to return the vessels four years after the end of the war. (*New York Times*, August 25, 1942.)

39. August 25, 1942. Decree providing for coal rationing by ordering that 75 percent of domestic coal production be turned over to the Government for distribution among railways, shipping lines, and gas and electric plants, and the remaining 25 percent for civilian use. (*New York Herald Tribune*, August 26, 1942.)

40. August 26, 1942. Decree establishing an air raid protective service throughout the country, under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Interior and Justice, to coordinate all local air raid services and to work in cooperation with the army. (*New York Herald Tribune*, August 27, 1942.)

41. August 31, 1942. Decree-law proclaiming that a state of war exists in all the national territory, and adopting four supplementary measures to place the nation on a war footing, as follows: prohibiting the operation of German and Italian insurance companies; granting an option to all

Brazilians to cancel contracts with Germans, Italians, and Japanese; authorizing a ten-hour working day in defense industries and providing for a 20 percent increase in overtime pay; and authorizing state governments to extend one-year enlistment periods in their police forces. (*New York Herald Tribune*, September 1, 1942.)

42. September 16, 1942. Decree ordering mobilization of the country's armed forces, including all reserves of the Army, Navy, and Air Forces. (*New York Times*, September 17, 1942.)

CHILE

21. July 3, 1942. Resolution No. 236, Chairman of the Petroleum Supply Committee, further restricting the use of gasoline by modifying the rationing system (see Chile 12, BULLETIN, September 1942). (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, July 4, 1942.)

22. July 18, 1942. Law No. 7200, the Extraordinary Economic Powers Law, known as the Emergency Law, granting the President specified administrative, economic, and financial powers and prescribing other measures deemed advisable because of the present emergency. (Published in the *Diario Oficial*, July 21, 1942. *El Mercurio*, Valparaíso, July 22, 1942.)

23. July 23, 1942. Decree, Ministry of the Treasury, prescribing rules and regulations governing the Public Credit Commission, organization created by the Emergency Law (see 22 above). (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, July 24, 1942.)

24. July 23, 1942. Decrees, Ministry of the Treasury, appointing three commissions to study the coordination of fiscal and semifiscal services and the determination of Social Security Fund investment policies as provided for by the Emergency Law (see 22 above). (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, July 24, 1942.)

COLOMBIA

12b. January 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 147, supplementing and clarifying Presidential Decree No. 59 of January 17, 1942 (see Colombia 10a, BULLETIN, June 1942), which established standards for the control and administration of the property and funds in the country belonging to nationals of the Axis powers or countries occupied by those powers. (*Diario Oficial*, January 27, 1942.)

30a. May 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1123, reorganizing regulations pertaining to army officers. (*Diario Oficial*, May 12, 1942.)

31a. June 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1361, prescribing economic and financial measures

(such as the issuance of treasury bonds to a total of 15,000,000 pesos for the consolidation of the national debt, levying taxes for bond service, etc.), considered necessary in view of the effects of the war on the national economy. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, June 8, 1942.)

31b. June 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1413, relating to the control and administration of the property and funds of foreigners. It exempts from specified provisions of Presidential Decrees No. 59 of January 17, 1942, and No. 147 of January 26, 1942 (see Colombia 10a, BULLETIN, June 1942, and 12b above), the property and funds of nationals of France, Holland, and Belgium and their colonies and possessions, domiciled in territory not occupied by countries members of the Tripartite Pact; prescribes additional measures in regard to the property and funds of such nationals; and outlines other general regulations pertaining to the subject. (*Diario Oficial*, June 22, 1942.)

33. June 22, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1480, regulating rubber exportation and trade. (*Diario Oficial*, July 1, 1942.)

COSTA RICA

22a. February 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 10, creating the National Civil Defense Board. (Mentioned in Presidential Decree No. 29 of June 27, 1942 (see 37b below), *La Gaceta*, June 28, 1942.)

37a. June 24, 1942. Executive Order regulating the importation and exportation of United States currency. (*La Prensa Libre*, San José, June 25, 1942.)

37b. June 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 29, abolishing the supply commissions; granting to the National Civil Defense Board, created by Decree No. 10 of February 25, 1942 (see 22a above), the attributes and functions formerly exercised by said commissions; and providing that the Chief of the Office of Investigation and Price Control, created by Decree No. 4 of March 27, 1942 (see Costa Rica 26, BULLETIN, July 1942), shall act in accord with the National Civil Defense Board. (*La Gaceta*, June 28, 1942.)

37c. June 27, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 66, ratifying the following Presidential Decrees concerning the control of property belonging to citizens of enemy countries, and other related matters: No. 44 of October 10, 1941, creating the Office of Coordination; No. 52 of December 26, 1941, prohibiting commerce with Japan, Ger-

many, and Italy; requiring nationals of those countries resident in Costa Rica to declare their property; and placing their commercial activities under vigilance and control (see Costa Rica 14, BULLETIN, April 1942); No. 1 of January 1, 1942, regulating the manner in which the declarations ordered by Decree No. 52 shall be made (see Costa Rica 16, BULLETIN, April 1942); No. 2 of January 23 and No. 4 of February 4, 1942 (see Costa Rica 18 and 20, BULLETIN, May 1942), prohibiting the exportation and reexportation of medicinal products and raw materials for such products, oils, fats, raw materials for industry, unworked or scrap metals (except gold), and construction materials, without previous authorization from the Department of Public Health and Social Welfare or the Department of the Treasury and Commerce; No. 6 of February 24, 1942, giving the Office of Coordination custodial powers over enemy property (see Costa Rica 22, BULLETIN, June 1942); No. 9 of March 25, 1942, creating the Alien Property Custody Board of which the Office of Coordination is a part (see Costa Rica 25, BULLETIN, July 1942); No. 16 of May 12, 1942, prohibiting the exportation of livestock and poultry and the reexportation of machinery and merchandise and authorizing the Department of the Treasury and Commerce to make such exportation and reexportation in cases of surplus or when required for continental defense (see Costa Rica 32a, BULLETIN, October 1942). (*La Gaceta*, July 2, 1942.)

CUBA

190a. July 13, 1942. Resolution No. 1, Ministry of Communications, amending the Plan for the Rationing of Electrical Current among the consumers of the *Compañía Cubana de Electricidad* approved by the Central Public Service Council by virtue of Order No. 1 of July 6, 1942 (see Cuba 184, BULLETIN, October 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 14, 1942, p. 12, 633.)

190b. July 14, 1942. Resolution No. 2, Ministry of Communications, extending the measures adopted in the Rationing Plan referred to above (190a), with the necessary changes, to independent electrical plants operating in the national territory. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 15, 1942, p. 12, 696.)

197. August 5, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2148, declaring effective the provisions contained in Article 13 of Resolution-Law No. 12 of February 5, 1942 (see Cuba 59, BULLETIN, May 1942) which orders citizens to cooperate in national defense by complying with the instructions of the

Central Civil Defense Board and not divulging alarming or false news or rumors. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 8, 1942, p. 14,295.)

198. August 17, 1942. Resolution No. 25, Office of Alien Property Custodian, pursuant to a recommendation of the Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control held in Washington June 30, 1942, ordering the attachment of fees and stocks belonging to specified enemy nationals whose trademarks are recorded in the Ministry of Commerce Register of Industrial Ownership. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 18, 1942, p. 14,879.)

199. August 18, 1942. Resolution No. 26, Office of Alien Property Custodian, adding to the list included in Resolution No. 25 of August 17, 1942 (see 198 above) a series of new names and trademarks. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 21, 1942, p. 15,136.)

200. August 19, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2306, declaring official mourning throughout the Republic until the burial of the bodies of the sailors who were members of the crews of the *Santiago de Cuba* and *Manzanillo*, ships of the Cuban Shipping Company (*Empresa Naviera de Cuba*), torpedoed August 12, 1942, in Atlantic waters by submarines of nations enemies of Cuba and the democracies. (*Gaceta Oficial*, Edición Extraordinaria, August 19, 1942, p. 15,063.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

39. June 17, 1942. Executive decree prohibiting the exportation of all kinds of metals that may be used industrially in the country, except under prior authorization of the Committee for the Import and Export of Metals. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, August 22, 1942.)

40. June 23, 1942. Executive Decree No. 81, establishing maximum price control of articles of prime necessity, particularly foodstuffs. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 27, 1942.)

41. June 23, 1942. Executive Decree No. 82, establishing the Price Control Commission to regulate prices of pharmaceutical products and specialties. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 27, 1942.)

42. July 9, 1942. Executive Decree No. 113, prohibiting the importation and exportation of United States currency, except when the transaction is a direct transfer of money between the legally authorized banks of the Dominican Republic, the United States of America, and the Republic of Haiti. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 11, 1942.)

ECUADOR

17. Presidential Decree No. 731. (*Registro Oficial*, May 13, 1942.)

17a. May 4, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 752. Obligatory Military Service Law. (*Registro Oficial*, May 13, 1942.)

19. May 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 816, limiting the exportation of palm nuts (*coquitos de palma real*) in order to safeguard the interests of national industry. (*Registro Oficial*, June 20, 1942.)

20. July 9, 1942. Presidential decree, prescribing conditions applicable to the exportation of crude or manufactured rubber. (*El Comercio*, Quito, July 10, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

26. Legislative Decree No. 11. (*Diario Oficial*, June 5, 1942.)

26a. June 4, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 12, providing that shipping documents covering imports may be accepted when they have been mutilated or erased as a result of censorship. (*Diario Oficial*, June 9, 1942.)

26b. June 4, 1942. Executive Decree setting forth the rules and regulations for carrying out Legislative Decree No. 16 (see El Salvador 14, BULLETIN, July 1942), which provided for government control of all property, enterprises, and industries belonging to nationals of enemy nations. (*Diario Oficial*, June 9, 1942.)

26c. June 4, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 13, providing that as long as the state of war exists any violator of Art. 82 of the Postal Regulations, which prohibits the carrying of mail by individuals or private firms, will be subject to a fine of 100 to 500 colones. (*Diario Oficial*, June 12, 1942.)

27. (Correction) June 4, 1942. (*Diario Oficial*, June 11, 1942.)

29. July 9, 1942. Executive Order amending the Regulations for Merchandise in Transit (Executive Decree of July 30, 1929) in order to facilitate the handling of merchandise in transit across the Gulf of Fonseca for Honduras and Nicaragua. (*Diario Oficial*, July 14, 1942.)

30. July 13, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 30, suspending the publication of certain statistical information that should not be made public because of the present emergency. (*Diario Oficial*, July 16, 1942.)

31. July 31, 1942. Legislative Decree prohibiting the importation and exportation of United

States currency except through the Central Reserve Bank of El Salvador. (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, August 1, 1942.)

GUATEMALA

33. July 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2820 clarifying various details in Presidential Decree No. 2623 (see Guatemala 19, BULLETIN, August 1942) regarding the margin of profit allowed on imported goods. (*Diario de Centro América*, July 9, 1942.)

34. July 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2833 revoking Article 6 of Presidential Decree No. 2814 (see Guatemala 32, BULLETIN, October 1942) which was intended to prevent the importation and use of United States currency that might have been attached in Europe by German occupation authorities, since the measures adopted inflicted undeserved hardships on the public. (*Diario de Centro América*, July 16, 1942.)

35. July 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2841 regulating Decree No. 2795 (see Guatemala 30, BULLETIN, October 1942) in regard to the National Mortgage Credit Association's supervision of mills and farms producing for export and belonging to persons on the Proclaimed List. (*Diario de Centro América*, July 24, 1942.)

36. July 20, 1942. Presidential Order establishing a rationing system for gasoline, kerosene, and Diesel oil and classifying consumers. (*Diario de Centro América*, July 23, 1942.)

HAITI

41. Executive Decree No. 127. (*Le Moniteur*, April 30, 1942.)

41a. April 30, 1942. Decree-Law No. 132, exempting from specified taxes nationally produced vegetable oils, except cottonseed, for the purpose of encouraging the establishment of factories for vegetable oil extraction. (*Le Moniteur*, May 11, 1942.)

42. (*Le Moniteur*, May 4, 1942.)

43. Executive Decree No. 136. (*Le Moniteur*, May 18, 1942.)

44. May 15, 1942. Decree-Law No. 139, ordering reimbursement of import duties paid on iron and steel containers whenever such containers are reexported filled with essential oils, essences and similar products, and syrups. (*Le Moniteur*, May 28, 1942.)

45. June 17, 1942. Decree-Law No. 148, authorizing the Government to use for national defense requirements necessary amounts deducted

from frozen Axis funds and the proceeds of liquidated Axis property. (*Le Moniteur*, June 18, 1942.)

46. June 25, 1942. Executive Decree No. 157, establishing control over the importation and exportation of foreign money. (*Le Moniteur*, June 25, 1942.)

47. June 29, 1942. Executive Decree No. 159, amending Executive Decree No. 123 of March 19, 1942 (see Haiti 37, BULLETINS, July and August, 1942), by adding cement, gasoline, and petroleum and its derivatives to the list of articles and products, reexportation of which is forbidden. (*Le Moniteur*, June 29, 1942.)

48. July 7, 1942. Decree-Law increasing the personnel of the Haitian Guard by 200 men, the expense of which increase will be met by withdrawals from blocked Axis funds. (*Le Matin*, Port-au-Prince, July 9, 1942.)

HONDURAS

5a. December 22, 1941. Presidential Order No. 946, approving a resolution of the Director General of Electrical Communications, December 9, 1941, regulating the use of telephone, radio, and cable communications with Japan during the existing state of war between Japan and Honduras. (*La Gaceta*, July 1, 1942.)

5b. December 24, 1941. Presidential Order No. 971, approving a resolution of the Director General of Electrical Communications, December 12, 1941, extending the regulations of the resolution of December 9, 1941 (see 5a above) to communications between Honduras and Germany and Italy. (*La Gaceta*, July 4, 1942.)

15a. July 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 48, regulating the importation and exportation of United States currency. (*La Gaceta*, July 15, 1942.)

MEXICO

27b₁. April 15, 1942. Decree establishing civilian air raid protection. Effective on publication in *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 13, 1942.)

34a. May 19, 1942. Regulation of Sec. II of Art. 7 of the Organic Law of Art. 28 of the Constitution (referring to monopolies), placing all stocks of rice, beans, and corn produced, imported, or stored in the country now or in the future at the disposal of the Department of National Economy, in order that distribution and prices may be regulated for the benefit of the consuming public. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, May 21, 1942.)

47a. June 15, 1942. Decree fixing priorities for the sale of cement by cement manufacturing establishments. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 29, 1942.)

55a. July 3, 1942. Executive Order outlining the restrictions to which owners of radio sending sets are subject. (*Diario Oficial*, July 31, 1942.)

56a. July 10, 1942. Decree prohibiting any increase in rents in the Federal District as long as the suspension of individual constitutional guarantees is in effect (see Mexico 39, BULLETIN, August 1942). Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, July 24, 1942.)

59. July 14, 1942. Decree supplementing the decree of March 31, 1942 (see Mexico 25, BULLETIN, July 1942) in regard to monthly declarations of stocks on hand of articles of prime necessity by farmers, merchants, and industrialists who are operating with a capital of more than 500 pesos. Effective on day following publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, July 28, 1942.)

60. July 21, 1942. Announcement of the installation of the Inter-Departmental Board on enemy alien property and affairs. (*Diario Oficial*, July 24, 1942.)

61. July 22, 1942. Executive Order authorizing the Office of Public Health to formulate a plan for fixing prices of medicinal products. (*Diario Oficial*, July 31, 1942.)

62. July 23, 1942. Executive Order to the Departments of Foreign Affairs, Interior, Labor and Social Welfare, Agriculture and Development, and the Office of Public Health, in regard to necessary action to safeguard the Mexican laborers who go to the United States to work. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 37, p. 647.) (*Diario Oficial*, August 21, 1942.)

63. July 25, 1942. Decree nullifying naturalization papers deceitfully obtained by Germans, Bulgarians, Hungarians, Italians, Japanese, and Rumanians, and suspending the issuance of naturalization papers under specified conditions to persons of those nationalities. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 20, 1942.)

64. July 28, 1942. Decree adding the following products to the list of articles on which exportation was restricted by the Decrees of December 9, 1941, March 6, 1942, and April 28, 1942 (see Mexico 1a and 21, BULLETIN, June 1942, and 32, BULLETIN, August 1942): sugar, brown sugar, cane syrups, cacao, new and used bags of *istle de palma*, all kinds of cotton textiles and knit goods, oils, hogs, mate-

rials for electrical installation, wire, industrial machinery, metal hardware, new and used henequen bags, caustic soda, soda ash, creosote, and all imported products subject to the global quota. Effective on day following publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 31, 1942.)

65. July 29, 1942. Decree regulating the exploitation of various types of rubber plants and trade in rubber products. Effective day following publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 29, 1942.)

66. July 30, 1942. Order, Navy Department, suspending for the duration of the war a specified concession for fishing in the waters of the Revillagigedo Islands. (*Diario Oficial*, July 30, 1942.)

67. July 31, 1942. Executive Order delegating to the Executive Power the granting of all authorizations for collecting funds or initiating activities for the collection of funds for national defense. (*Diario Oficial*, August 29, 1942.)

68. August 3, 1942. Decree putting into effect the Military Service Law of August 19, 1940. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 31, 1942.)

69. August 3, 1942. Decree supplementing, in regard to medicines, the regulation on articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, August 7, 1942.)

70. August 5, 1942. Decree amending the Regulation of the alien enemy property and business law (see Mexico 44 and 45, BULLETIN, September 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, August 17, 1942.)

71. August 8, 1942. Order, Office of Public Health, fixing maximum prices for medicinal products throughout the Republic. (*Diario Oficial*, August 11, 1942.)

72. August 10, 1942. Decree amending the Regulation of Sec. II, Art. 7, of the Organic Law of Art. 28 of the Constitution (see 34a above), giving the Government absolute control of stocks of rice, corn, and beans; maximum prices to be fixed by the Department of National Economy. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 15, 1942.)

73. August 10, 1942. Circular No. 301-12-123, Department of the Treasury and Public Credit, suspending temporarily the application of sanctions for the lack of dates on maritime freight invoices on shipments from the United States to the American Republics. (*Diario Oficial*, August 20, 1942.)

74. August 11, 1942. Decree prohibiting the importation, exportation, transport, commerce in or possession of United States currency, except for transactions conducted by or through the Bank of Mexico, and except for the importation, exportation, etc., of two-dollar bills. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 15, 1942.)

75. August 11, 1942. Decree establishing Civilian Defense. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 31, 1942.)

76. August 12, 1942. Order, Navy Department, suspending for the duration of the war a specified concession for fishing in Pacific coastal waters. (*Diario Oficial*, August 12, 1942.)

77. August 20, 1942. Order, Office of Public Health, fixing maximum prices for medicinal products throughout the Republic. (This supplements 71 above.) (*Diario Oficial*, August 21, 1942.)

78. August 21, 1942. Decree ordering the seizure of the French motorship *Méropé*, anchored at Tampico, to be used as an oil tanker. (*Diario Oficial*, August 22, 1942.)

79. August 26, 1942. Decree creating in the Department of Labor and Social Welfare an Employment Service (*Bolsa de Trabajo*), to facilitate the placing of unemployed workers in their preferred occupations or in other newly developed industrial or agricultural enterprises. (*Diario Oficial*, August 31, 1942.)

80. August 27, 1942. Decree prohibiting the exportation of silver in coin or bars and levying an emergency tax of 10.92 pesos per kilogram on silver production. (Effective August 31, 1942.) (*Diario Oficial*, August 29, 1942.)

PANAMA

19. July 3, 1942. Decree notifying the Republic's inhabitants to refrain from foreign travel except for matters of urgency and necessity, because of the serious difficulties in regard to air transportation services. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, July 4, 1942.)

20. July 21, 1942. Decree appointing an Import Control Commission to have charge, among other things, of the study of all matters relative to priority orders or certificates of necessity. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, July 22, 1942.)

21. July 22, 1942. Decree incorporating the National Red Cross as an auxiliary in the armed forces in time of war. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, July 23, 1942.)

22. August 1, 1942. Decree creating an Office of Price Control to control and regulate wholesale and retail prices, especially of articles of prime necessity. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, August 2, 1942.)

PARAGUAY

16. (*Gaceta Oficial*, March 20, 1942.)

17. May 27, 1942. Resolution No. 54, General Office of Industry and Commerce, extending the list of articles of general necessity subjected by Resolution No. 30 of March 6, 1942 (see Paraguay 12, BULLETIN, August 1942) to the provisions of Decree No. 11,394 of March 5, 1942 (see Paraguay 9, BULLETINS, July and September 1942), and excluding specified articles from the sales provisions established by Resolution No. 38 of March 11, 1942 (see Paraguay 14, BULLETIN, August 1942). (*El País*, Asunción, May 28, 1942.)

18. May 30, 1942. Presidential decree providing for the initiation of gasoline rationing on June 1, 1942. (*El País*, Asunción, June 1, 1942.)

19. June 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 13,043, regulating the sale of new or used empty burlap bags, used cotton bags, and burlap in general. (*El País*, Asunción, June 16, 1942.)

PERU

16a. June 6, 1942. Resolution, Treasury Department, providing that the importation and exportation of United States currency shall be handled exclusively through the Central Reserve Bank of Peru, with the exception of \$100 allowed travelers entering or leaving the country. (*El Peruano*, June 10, 1942.)

17a. June 11, 1942. Presidential Decree establishing a Transportation Coordination Board (*Junta de Coordinación de Transportes*) to study and handle the numerous transportation problems created by the present emergency. (*El Comercio*, Lima, July 11, 1942.)

18a. June 26, 1942. Presidential Decree issuing rules and regulations necessary for the execution of Law No. 9592 (see Peru 18, BULLETIN, October 1942). (*El Peruano*, June 30, 1942.)

18b. June 26, 1942. Presidential Decree prohibiting the publication of information regarding the movement of naval and merchant marine vessels. (*El Comercio*, Lima, July 11, 1942.)

18c. June 28, 1942. Resolution, Ministry of Navy and Aviation, authorizing the use of silk braid on naval uniforms because of the impossi-

bility of securing the regulation gold braid. (*El Peruano*, June 30, 1942.)

18d. July 1, 1942. Regulations, Director of National Nutrition, covering the exportation of coffee. (*El Peruano*, July 9, 1942.)

18e. July 3, 1942. Presidential Decree approving the coffee exportation regulations issued by the Director of National Nutrition (see 18d above). (*El Peruano*, July 9, 1942.)

18f. July 8, 1942. Resolution, Director of National Nutrition, fixing the zones and quotas for coffee exports for the year 1942-1943 in accordance with the provisions of the regulations for coffee exportation (see 18d above). (*El Peruano*, July 9, 1942.)

19. July 11, 1942. Decree banning the publication in newspapers or the transmission by radio of meteorological reports for the duration of the war. *New York Times*, July 12, 1942.

20. July 24, 1942. Presidential Decree raising the salaries of government employees to meet economic conditions caused by the present war. (*El Peruano*, July 27, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

22a. December 26, 1941. Public Law 373 (77th Congress), authorizing black-outs in the District of Columbia, and for other purposes.

39a. January 27, 1942. Public Law 416 (77th Congress), authorizing vessels of Canadian registry to transport iron ore on the Great Lakes in 1942.

202. July 30, 1942. Letter from the President to the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission, transferring the activities of the Committee on Fair Employment Practices from the War Production Board to the War Manpower Commission. (*Federal Register*, August 12, 1942.)

203. August 1, 1942. Public Law 695 (77th Congress), amending Public Law 416 (77th Congress) (see 39a above), continuing in force during the existing war the authority granted vessels of Canadian registry to transport iron ore on the Great Lakes.

204. August 1, 1942. Executive Order No. 9209. Regulations governing the payment of additional compensation to enlisted men of the Marine Corps specially qualified in the use of arms. (*Federal Register*, August 5, 1942.)

205. August 1, 1942. Executive Order No. 9210. Regulations governing the payment of additional compensation to enlisted men of the Navy and Coast Guard specially qualified in the use of arms. (*Federal Register*, August 5, 1942.)

206. August 4, 1942. Public Law 697 (77th Congress) increasing the additional pay of officers and enlisted men of the United States Navy assigned to duty on submarines, and for other purposes.

207. August 4, 1942. Public Law 698 (77th Congress). Naval Aviation Cadet Act of 1942, repealing certain laws and amending other laws relating to naval aviation cadets, providing for aviation cadets in the Naval Reserve and Marine Corps Reserve, and for other purposes.

208. August 5, 1942. Executive Order No. 9214, extending the authority of the Office of Defense Transportation to domestic transportation within the territories and possessions of the United States. (*Federal Register*, August 7, 1942.)

209. August 6, 1942. Public Law 699 (77th Congress), amending the "Act to authorize black-outs in the District of Columbia" (see 22*a* above) and for other purposes.

210. August 6, 1942. Public Law 700 (77th Congress), authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to proceed with the construction of certain public works, and for other purposes.

211. August 6, 1942. Public Law 701 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution authorizing the War Shipping Administration to sell or charter two merchant vessels to the Government of Ireland.

212. August 6, 1942. Executive Order No. 9215, authorizing and directing the Secretary of War to assume full control of certain airports. (*Federal Register*, August 8, 1942.)

213. August 7, 1942. Public Law 702 (77th Congress), amending "An Act to provide for the award of medals of honor, distinguished service medals, and Navy crosses, and for other purposes," approved February 4, 1919, so as to change the conditions for the awarding of medals.

214. August 7, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2566, extending from one to three years the time in which imported sugar must be used in the manufacture or production of articles as prescribed in Sec. 313 *b* of the Tariff Act of 1930. (*Federal Register*, August 8, 1942.)

215. August 7, 1942. Executive Order No. 9216, authorizing the Adjutant General to execute certificates of facts or events officially recorded when it is contrary to public policy to divulge the source of official knowledge or the text of the official record. (*Federal Register*, August 11, 1942.)

216. August 7, 1942. Executive Order No. 9217, authorizing the Reconstruction Finance

Corporation to acquire and dispose of property deemed necessary for military, naval or other war purposes. (*Federal Register*, August 11, 1942.)

217. August 11, 1942. Executive Order No. 9218, authorizing the Office of Scientific Research and Development in the Office for Emergency Management to acquire and dispose of property. (*Federal Register*, August 14, 1942.)

218. August 11, 1942. Executive Order No. 9219, extending the provisions of Executive Order No. 9001 of December 27, 1941 (see United States 25, BULLETIN, April 1942) to the Office of Scientific Research and Development in the Office for Emergency Management. (*Federal Register*, August 14, 1942.)

219. August 13, 1942. Executive Order No. 9220, authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to take possession of and operate the plant of the General Cable Company at Bayonne, New Jersey. (*Federal Register*, August 15, 1942.)

220. August 15, 1942. Executive Order No. 9222, authorizing the payment of monetary allowances in lieu of transportation in kind for dependents of officers, warrant officers, and enlisted men above the fourth grade of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, Coast Guard, Coast and Geodetic Survey, and the Public Health Service upon permanent change of station. (*Federal Register*, August 19, 1942.)

221. August 18, 1942. Public Law 704 (77th Congress), to facilitate the disposition of prizes captured by the United States during the present war, and for other purposes.

222. August 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 9225, authorizing the Secretary of War to take possession of and operate the plant of the S. A. Woods Machine Company at South Boston, Massachusetts. (*Federal Register*, August 22, 1942.)

223. August 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 9226. Regulations governing the furnishing of clothing in kind or payment of cash allowances in lieu thereof to enlisted men of the Navy, Coast Guard, Naval Reserve, and Coast Guard Reserve. (*Federal Register*, August 22, 1942.)

224. August 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 9227, amending established rules governing the navigation of the Panama Canal and adjacent waters. (*Federal Register*, August 22, 1942. Correction appears in *Federal Register*, September 2, 1942.)

225. August 19, 1942. Executive Order No. 9228, amending established rules governing the

navigation of the Panama Canal and adjacent waters. (*Federal Register*, August 22, 1942.)

226. August 20, 1942. Public Law 705 (77th Congress), amending the Servicemen's Dependents Allowance Act of 1942 (see United States 165, *BULLETIN*, September 1942.)

227. August 20, 1942. Executive Order No. 9229, directing the Secretary of the Navy to relinquish possession of the plant of the General Cable Corporation, Bayonne, New Jersey. (*Federal Register*, August 22, 1942.)

228. August 22, 1942. Executive Order No. 9233, extending the provisions of Executive Order No. 9001 of December 27, 1941, in regard to industrial mobilization for production of war materials (see United States 25, *BULLETIN*, April 1942) to the Board of Economic Warfare. (*Federal Register*, August 26, 1942.)

229. August 28, 1942. Presidential Proclamation No. 2567, facilitating the construction of a national defense pipe line by the Project Five Pipe Line Corporation. (*Federal Register*, September 1, 1942.)

230. August 31, 1942. Executive Order No. 9235, providing for the effective utilization of supplies and equipment by Government agencies. (*Federal Register*, September 4, 1942.)

231. September 1, 1942. Executive Order No. 9241, extending the provisions of Executive Order No. 9001 of December 27, 1941, in regard to industrial mobilization for production of war materials (see United States 25, *BULLETIN*, April 1942) to the Office of Strategic Services, United States Joint Chiefs of Staff. (*Federal Register*, September 12, 1942.)

232. September 3, 1942. Executive Order No. 9236, transferring the survey ship *Pathfinder* from the Coast and Geodetic Survey to the Navy Department, and transferring certain personnel among the Coast and Geodetic Survey and the War and Navy Departments. (*Federal Register*, September 4, 1942.)

233. September 9, 1942. Executive Order No. 9240. Regulations relating to overtime wage compensation. (*Federal Register*, September 11, 1942.)

URUGUAY

11a. February 21, 1942. Decree-Law No. 696, creating a Council of State to advise the President in administrative and legislative matters. (*Diario Oficial*, February 25, 1942.)

11b. February 21, 1942. Presidential Decree prohibiting the propagation of news detrimental

to the country's order and tranquillity. (*Diario Oficial*, February 25, 1942.)

11c. February 27, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 320/942, extending gasoline rationing and prescribing certain measures in this respect. (*Diario Oficial*, March 13, 1942.)

13₁. March 9, 1942. Decree-Law No. 696, appointing the members of the Council of State (see 11a above) and outlining its procedure. (*Diario Oficial*, March 13, 1942.)

23a. April 9, 1942. Presidential Decree suspending, in view of present travel difficulties, the cancellation of the appointments of certain consular officials in Italy until one month after their return to Uruguay. (*Diario Oficial*, May 28, 1942.)

23b. April 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 388/942, setting forth new time schedules for commercial activities, theatrical performances, etc., in order to conserve fuel. (*Diario Oficial*, April 14, 1942.)

24b. April 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 388/942, regulating the decree fixing new time schedules for various activities (see 23b above) and exempting bakeries and butcher shops from the prescribed opening hour. (*Diario Oficial*, April 18, 1942.)

46a. May 21, 1942. Executive Resolution No. 536/942, providing for the declaration of stocks on hand of petroleum lubricants each time authorization is requested to supply boats in accordance with the Presidential Decree of May 2, 1942 (see Uruguay 43, *BULLETIN*, September 1942.) (*Diario Oficial*, May 30, 1942.)

53. June 18, 1942. Decree-Law No. 1631, organizing the country's civilian defense mechanism. (*Diario Oficial*, July 22, 1942.)

54. June 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1626 changing the regulations for insignia on army uniforms because of the impossibility of securing gold and silver braid. (*Diario Oficial*, July 17, 1942.)

55. July 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 410/942, including metal containers in the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, July 22, 1942.)

56. July 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 410/942, including sulfur in its various forms in the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, July 22, 1942.)

57. July 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 760/942, amending the Decree of September 15, 1941, on the rationing of gasoline, by fixing a maximum monthly quota for automobiles belong-

ing to government and diplomatic officials. (*Diario Oficial*, July 15, 1942.)

58. July 9, 1942. Executive Resolution No. 4373, prescribing the substitution of gold-colored silk for the gold cord on naval uniform caps because of the difficulty in securing regulation gold cord. (*Diario Oficial*, July 23, 1942.)

59. July 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1643/939, setting forth the procedure for carrying out the Decree-Law of April 17, 1942 (see Uruguay 32, BULLETIN, September 1942) referring to rush purchases from foreign countries. (*Diario Oficial*, July 17, 1942.)

60. July 16, 1942. Decree-Law No. 696, enlarging the Council of State (see 11a and 13i above) since the many problems brought about by present events make it advisable to lessen the burden falling on Council members. (*Diario Oficial*, July 22, 1942.)

61. July 17, 1942. Executive Resolution No. 673/941, outlining the information required of importers in securing certificates of necessity for merchandise originating in Great Britain. (*Diario Oficial*, July 25, 1942.)

62. July 24, 1942. Presidential Decree adding pastry shops to the exemptions under the Decree of April 13, 1942 (see 24b above) regulating opening hours of commercial establishments. (*El País*, Montevideo, July 25, 1942.)

VENEZUELA

41. June 30, 1942. Resolution No. 31, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for certain medicinal products. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 14, 1942.)

42. July 9, 1942. Resolution, National Price Regulation Board, extending to retail sales of rice the scale of maximum prices contained in Resolution No. 9 of March 14, 1942 (see Venezuela 20, BULLETIN, July 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 9, 1942.)

43. July 14, 1942. Resolution No. 33, National Price Regulation Board, fixing the maximum sales price for coconut oil for manufacturers' industrial uses. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 21, 1942.)

44. July 15, 1942. Resolution No. 32, National Price Regulation Board, providing that bread, food paste, and cracker manufacturers in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda may not sell flour from their stocks without previous authorization from the National Price Regulation Board. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 16, 1942.)

45. July 18, 1942. Resolution No. 32, National Price Regulation Board, rectifying the sales prices of specified medicinal products appearing among those listed in Article 1 of the Resolution of June 30, 1942 (see 41 above) because incorrect prices were shown therein. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 18, 1942.)

46. July 21, 1942. Resolution No. 34, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for fire extinguishers and their fluids. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 22, 1942.)

47. July 22, 1942. Presidential Decree creating the office of Coordination Agent among the authorities and organisms of Venezuela and similar offices in the United States to handle matters relative to shipments of merchandise, shipping priorities, and related subjects. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 22, 1942.)

48. July 23, 1942. Resolution, National Price Regulation Board, rectifying the sales prices for specified medicinal products incorrectly listed in the Resolution of June 30, 1942 (see 41 above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 27, 1942.)

49. July 29, 1942. Compulsory Military Service Law, to go into effect January 1, 1943. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 30, 1942.)

50. July 29, 1942. Resolution No. 37-7, National Price Regulation Board, creating for the entire national territory the "Tire Control Ticket" which every operator of a motorized vehicle must carry at all times after an appointed date and without which no vehicle may be operated. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 29, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

13a. April 15, 1942. Inaugural meeting and installation at Montevideo, Uruguay, of the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense, constituted pursuant to Resolution XVII of the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, Rio de Janeiro, January 1942, for the purpose of studying and recommending to the American Governments appropriate measures for the control of sabotage and all other types of subversive activities directed by extra-continental forces against the ideals and security of the Western Hemisphere. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, April 11, 1942.)

19. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, June 13, 1942.)

20. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, June 13, 1942.)

34. July 28, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State that two aviation training schools for pilots, similar to the 600 schools operated in the United States by the Civil Aeronautics Administration, will be established in Mexico with the cooperation of the United States. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 1, 1942.)

35. July 28, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State of the conclusion of arrangements with Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Panama, for the immediate linking by a pioneer road of the already constructed segments of the Inter-American Highway between the Mexican-Guatemalan border and Panama City. This will permit road traffic at an early date from the end of the existing standard gauge railway in Mexico to the Canal Zone; necessary surveying is already under way and construction work is to be started shortly, at the expense of the United States Government. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 1, 1942.)

36. August 3, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare, of the signing of a rubber agreement with the Republic of Honduras, under the terms of which the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase, until December 31, 1946, all rubber produced in Honduras which is not required for essential domestic needs there. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 8, 1942.)

37. August 6, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State of an arrangement between the Governments of the United States and Mexico to make possible the temporary migration of Mexican agricultural workers to the United States to meet the increasing demand for farm laborers caused by the war emergency. The arrangement, indicative of the effective cooperation between the two countries in the war effort, provides guarantees as to wage rates, living conditions, and repatriation for the Mexican workers, while specifying that they are not to be employed to replace other workers or for the purpose of reducing previously established rates of pay. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 8, 1942.)

38. August 11, 1942. Agreement signed by the Secretary of State of the United States and the Ambassador of Bolivia in Washington providing for the detail of a military mission to Bolivia, to be effective for a period of four years beginning with

the date of signature. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 15, 1942.)

39. August 12, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare of the signing of a rubber agreement with Trinidad and British Guiana, under the terms of which the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase, until December 31, 1946, all rubber produced in Trinidad and British Guiana that is not required for essential domestic needs there. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 15, 1942.)

40. August 12, 1942. Joint announcement by the Secretary of Commerce of the United States and the Under Secretary of the Treasury and Public Credit of Mexico of an agreement whereby the Mexican highway credit of \$30,000,000 announced on November 19, 1941 (see *BULLETIN*, January 1942, pp. 47-50) may be used in installments exceeding \$10,000,000 a year in order to expedite the completion of roads now under construction, including the Inter-American Highway from Mexico City to the Guatemalan border. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 15, 1942.)

41. August 12, 1942. Joint announcement by the Secretary of Commerce of the United States and the Under Secretary of the Treasury and Public Credit of Mexico of the signing of an agreement under which the Export-Import Bank of Washington will extend credits up to \$6,000,000 to pay for new and second-hand equipment and materials and for services in the United States to aid in the establishment of the steel plant at Monclova, Coahuila, Mexico. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 15, 1942.)

42. August 18, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare of the signing of a rubber agreement with British Honduras, under the terms of which the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase, until December 31, 1946, all rubber produced in British Honduras which is not required for essential domestic needs there. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 22, 1942.)

43. August 24, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare, of the signing of a rubber agreement with the Republic of El Salvador, under the terms of which the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase, until December 31, 1946, all rubber produced in El Salvador which is not required for essential do-

mestic needs there. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 29, 1942.)

44. August 28, 1942. Announcement by the Board of Economic Warfare of an agreement with Brazil for the purchase by the Commodities Credit Corporation of the entire exportable surplus of Brazil's babassu and castor oil. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, August 29, 1942.)

45. September 2, 1942. Announcement by the President of the United States that a special United States technical mission of industrial engineers, organized at the request of the Brazilian Government by the Board of Economic Warfare, the Department of State, and the War Production Board, will go to Brazil to cooperate with experts of that country in developing Brazilian industry and war production. Basic objectives of the mission are: (a) to increase local production of essential products, especially those formerly imported from the United States, in order to save shipping space; (b) to convert local industries to the use of substitute raw materials, replacing supplies ordinarily imported; (c) to maintain and improve transportation facilities; and (d) to lay the foundation for a long-range strengthening of Brazil's whole industrial economy, the entire program to be directed toward a further increase in Brazil's already important contribution of vital materials for its own and the United Nations' joint war effort. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, September 5, 1942.)

46. September 3, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State of the conclusion of agreements specifying the principles and procedures applicable to the provision of aid to the armed forces of the United States by the Governments of the United Kingdom, Australia, New Zealand, and Fighting France, on the same terms as those under which the United States supplies aid to them in accordance with the provisions of the Lend-Lease Act. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, September 5, 1942.)

47. September 7, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State of the signature of a military and naval cooperation agreement between the Governments of the United States and Cuba, coordinating all the special military and naval measures taken between the two countries since

the beginning of the war and facilitating for the duration of the war the adoption of new measures of military and naval security. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, September 12, 1942.)

48. September 8, 1942. Announcement by the Secretary of State of the United States of the establishment by the United States of bases for naval vessels and patrol planes in the Galápagos Islands, with the consent of the Government of Ecuador. (*Christian Science Monitor*, Boston, September 8, 1942.)

49. September 10, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare of the signing of a rubber agreement with Guatemala, under the terms of which the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase, until December 31, 1946, all rubber produced in Guatemala that is not required for essential domestic needs there. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, September 12, 1942.)

50. September 10, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare of the signing of a rubber agreement with Mexico, under the terms of which the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase, until December 31, 1946, any exportable surplus of tree rubber produced in Mexico and all guayule and other plant rubber produced in Mexico during that period. The agreement contains provisions with respect to limitations of the use of rubber products in Mexico and a provision for the establishment by the Rubber Reserve Company of a substantial development fund for the purpose of obtaining the maximum production of wild rubber in Mexico. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, September 12, 1942.)

51. September 14, 1942. Announcement by the Department of State, the Rubber Reserve Company, and the Board of Economic Warfare of the signing of a rubber agreement with Panama, under the terms of which the Rubber Reserve Company will purchase, until December 31, 1946, all rubber produced in Panama which is not required for essential domestic needs there. (*Press Release No. 447*, United States Department of State, September 14, 1942.)



Pan American News

Publications of the Pan American Union since January 1942

The Pan American Union has adopted a plan by which its publications may be secured at an annual subscription rate of \$20.00 per year for all publications originating in, and distributed by, the Pan American Union; \$15.00 per year for the publications in English only; and \$10.00 per year for publications in Spanish and Portuguese.

The subscription will cover current monthly or other periodicals, new numbers of the various series and any other publication issued during the year for which the subscription is placed.

This new policy is expected to simplify the acquiring of the many publications of

the Pan American Union by libraries that desire to receive all issues.

Under the new plan, as soon as a publication is issued it will be sent to the subscriber.

During the current year the several divisions of the Pan American Union continued to issue material of interest to the general public as well as to specialists in various aspects of Latin American life, culture, and relations.

In addition to the BULLETIN, the official organ of the Union, which appears monthly in three editions, English, Spanish, and Portuguese, not entirely parallel, the regular publications continued by the various divisions are as follows:

JURIDICAL DIVISION.—The Final Act of the Inter-American Conference of Police

and Judicial Authorities held in Buenos Aires May 27-June 9 was issued in Spanish (*Conferencia Interamericana sobre Coordinación de Medidas Policiales y Judiciales*, Serie de Congresos y Conferencias No. 39); and the chart, *Status of the Pan American Treaties and Conventions*, revised as of July 1942, was published.

DIVISION OF INTELLECTUAL COOPERATION.—There were two new numbers in the *Points of View* series: *The Presence of Tradition*, by Luis Alberto Sánchez (No. 4), and *The Problem of America*, by Ernesto Nelson (No. 5). Three issues of *Panorama* have appeared, Nos. 18, 19, and 20.

The Spanish publications included two numbers of *Correo*, Nos. 23-24 and No. 25, and Nos. 13 and 14 of *Lectura*. Two new titles have been added to the Spanish Education Series: No. 115-116, *Democracia y Educación*, by Kilpatrick, Childs, and Dix; and No. 117, *Cómo Estudiar la Conducta del Niño*, by Gertrude Driscoll. *Puntos de Vista* series has added *La Literatura Norteamericana de Hoy*, by Van Wyck Brooks (No. 4).

The new Portuguese publications were *Leitura* No. 7 and Education Series Nos. 72-73, *Democracia e Educação*, by Kilpatrick, Childs, and Dix.

COLUMBUS MEMORIAL LIBRARY.—The Library continued to publish a monthly annotated report, *The Pan American Bookshelf*, listing its recent acquisitions. Two volumes in the Bibliographic Series were revised: *Selected List of Books (in English) on Latin America* (No. 4, sixth edition, revised and enlarged) and *Theses on Pan American Topics* prepared by candidates for degrees in universities and colleges in the United States (No. 5, third edition, revised and enlarged).

DIVISION OF AGRICULTURAL COOPERATION.—Two additions to the Series on Cooperatives were issued, one in Spanish, the other in Portuguese: *Cooperativas de*

Electrificación Rural en los Estados Unidos de América, by Udo Rall (No. 18, Spanish) and *As Assembléias Gerais das Cooperativas e o Direito Brasileiro*, by Silveira Peixoto (No. 14, Portuguese). In the Spanish Series on Agriculture No. 141, *Cultivo del Caucho*, by W. E. Klippert, and Nos. 142-143, *El Olivo*, by Ira J. Condit, appeared.

DIVISION OF ECONOMIC INFORMATION.—Three numbers of *Commercial Pan America* and *Panamérica Comercial*, the corresponding Spanish edition, a monthly mimeographed review of commerce and finance, were published, as follows: *The Reciprocal Trade Program in Latin America* (January-February), *Latin America's Strategic Metals and their Relationship to the United States War Program* (March), and *Annual Economic Survey of Latin America for 1941, Part 1*.

MUSIC DIVISION.—Nos. 3, 4, and 5 were added to the Music Series and include: *Recordings of Latin American Songs and Dances*, an annotated selected list of popular and folk music, by Gustavo Durán; *14 Traditional Spanish Songs and Dances*, transcribed by Gustavo Durán from recordings made in Texas, 1934-1939, by John A., Ruby T., and Alan Lomax; and *The Music of Argentina*, by Albert T. Luper. Two mimeographed lists are proving helpful to many inquirers: (1) *Selected List of Collections of Latin American Songs and References for Guidance in Planning Fiestas* and (2) *Latin American Music Published in Connection with the Editorial Project of the Music Division of the Pan American Union, and a Partial List of Other Publications of Latin American Music and Books on Latin American Music*.

STATISTICAL DIVISION.—Seven pamphlets in the Foreign Trade Series have appeared, as follows: No. 193, *General Survey of the Foreign Trade of Latin America for 1939 and 1940*; No. 194, *Foreign Trade of Costa Rica for 1939 and 1940*; No. 195, *Foreign Trade of Ecuador for 1939 and 1940*;

No. 196, *Foreign Trade of Honduras for 1939 and 1940*; No. 197, *Foreign Trade of the Dominican Republic for 1940*; No. 198, *Foreign Trade of Venezuela for 1939 and 1940*; and No. 199, *Foreign Trade of Paraguay for 1940 and 1941*.

DIVISION OF LABOR AND SOCIAL INFORMATION.—No. 7–8, a double issue, of *Noticias* gave notes in Spanish on subjects within the field of the Division for the period June–August 1941. No. 9 should appear before the end of 1942. *Mexicans in the United States*, Bibliographic Series No. 27, is a forthcoming publication of this division.

LATIN AMERICAN STAMP SECTION.—A price list of the postage stamps on sale at the Union has been issued, and the Section completed five of the *Who's Who on the Postage Stamps of Latin America* Series (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, and Colombia).

COUNSELOR'S OFFICE.—The Congress and Conference Series was increased by five publications each in English and Spanish and three in Portuguese. These are: *Report of the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics, Rio de Janeiro, January 15–28, 1942* (No. 36, English; No. 36, Spanish; No. 23, Portuguese); *Final Act of the Eighth Pan American Child Congress, Washington, D. C., May 2–9, 1942* (No. 37, English; No. 37, Spanish; No. 24, Portuguese); *Final Act of the Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control, Washington D. C., June 30–July 10, 1942* (No. 39, English; No. 40, Spanish; No. 25, Portuguese); *Proceedings of the Inter-American Conference on Systems of Economic and Financial Control, Washington, D. C., June 30–July 10, 1942* (No. 40, English; No. 41, Spanish); *Steps taken by the Pan American Union in Fulfillment of the Resolutions adopted at the Eighth International Conference of American States and other Inter-American Conferences: Report submitted*

to the Governing Board, October, 1942 (No. 42, English; No. 42, Spanish).

Additions to the Club and Study Series were: No. 2,¹ *Historical Evolution of Inter-American Cooperation* in four volumes covering I, *Historical Evolution of Inter-American Cooperation*; II, *Inter-American Cooperation in the Preservation of Peace and the Defense of the Western Hemisphere*; III, *Inter-American Economic Cooperation*; and IV, *Inter-American Cultural Cooperation*; No. 3, *The Literature, Art, and Music of Latin America*, including I, *The Literature of Latin America*, II, *The Art of Latin America*, and III, *The Music of Latin America* (prepared by the Music Division); and No. 4, *The War and the Americas*, presenting specific applications of the principles of inter-American solidarity and measures for the defense of the Continent.

DIVISION OF SPECIAL PUBLICATIONS.—This new division, which on April 1 took charge of the American Nations, American Cities, and Commodities Series, has just issued a second edition, revised and enlarged, of the booklet called *The Americas—A Panoramic View*. Reprints of the booklets on Buenos Aires, Chile, Mexico, and Venezuela contain revised statistics. Before April 1 new booklets on Lima, Montevideo, Haiti, Paraguay, tin, and coffee were prepared.

In addition to the regular publications mentioned above there appeared many special ones on subjects of current interest and importance.

The Statistical Division revised and published a chart entitled *The Americas at a Glance*.

¹ No. 1 was the *Good Neighbor Tour*, an imaginary visit to the other American Republics, which consisted of 10 mimeographed volumes, as follows: I, *Introductory Program—Source Material*; II, *Seminar on the American Republics and Inter-American Relations*; III, *Brazil—Uruguay—Paraguay*; IV, *Argentina—Chile*; V, *Bolivia—Peru*; VI, *Ecuador—Colombia*; VII, *Venezuela—Panama*; VIII, *Republics of Central America*; IX, *Mexico—Cuba*; and X, *Haiti—Dominican Republic—Puerto Rico*.

Special publications prepared by the Division of Agricultural Cooperation were: *Survey of the Dairy Industry in Twelve Latin American Countries* and *Convention and Documentary Material on Nature Protection and Wild Life Preservation in the Western Hemisphere*.

The Juridical Division issued several special publications. A Special Handbook for the Inter-American Conference of Police and Judicial Authorities was published in Spanish only (*Conferencia Interamericana sobre Coordinación de Medidas Policiales y Judiciales, Buenos Aires, Mayo de 1942*). The Division also prepared a fourth edition in Spanish, English, Portuguese, and French of *Agencies for the Codification of International Law* and a second edition in Spanish, English, and Portuguese of the report on the status of the work provided for in the resolutions on the codification of international law and the improvement and coordination of inter-American peace treaties, approved by the Eighth International Conference of American States. Other publications were: *The Protection of Intellectual Property of American Citizens in Latin America* (English), minutes of the sessions of the Inter-American Juridical Committee held from March 20 to July 3, 1942 (mainly in Portuguese), and *Status of the Treaties and Conventions Signed at the First South American Congress on Private International Law Held at Montevideo in 1888-1889* (Spanish and English).

Booklets in a new series for elementary school children, issued by the Pan American Union with the cooperation of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, attract the eye by their brightly colored covers. So far the titles include *The Pan American Union*, *The Incas*, *The Araucanians*, and *The Snake Farm at Butantán, Brazil*.

Three reprints from the BULLETIN of the Pan American Union have been made, two of them for the second time: *Latin American*

Composers and Their Problems, by William Berrien; *Ancient Civilizations of America*, by Vincenzo Petruccio; and *Some Latin American Festivals and Folk Dances*, by various authors.

*Trade Agreement between the United States and Uruguay*¹

On July 21, 1942, at Montevideo, a reciprocal trade agreement between the United States and Uruguay, negotiated under authority of the Trade Agreements Act of the United States, was signed. It will become effective thirty days after the exchange of the Uruguayan Government's instrument of ratification and the proclamation by the President of the United States. It will remain in force for an initial term of three years, unless terminated earlier in accordance with provisions that permit either Government to suspend or terminate it in whole or in part on thirty days' written notice if it is considered that an industry or the commerce of the respective country is being prejudiced or that any object of the agreement is nullified or impaired as a result of any circumstance or any measure taken by the other Government, and if a mutual accord cannot be reached on the matter of complaint. If neither Government gives the other notice of intention to terminate the agreement on expiration of the three-year term, it will continue in force thereafter subject to termination on six months' notice or in accordance with the special provisions just cited.

The agreement, designed both to facilitate trade between the two countries during the present exigency and to furnish a basis for trade expansion after the war,

¹ This summary is based on the analysis of the *United States-Uruguay Trade Agreement* prepared by representatives of the United States Departments of State, Agriculture, Commerce, the Treasury, and the Tariff Commission, and published in the *Supplement to the Department of State Bulletin*, July 25, 1942.

provides for reciprocal tariff concessions covering a substantial portion of normal United States-Uruguay trade. These concessions include tariff reductions ranging from 21 to 64 percent on specified articles, the binding of certain tariff rates against increase, and the binding of specified commodities on the free list.

In recent years trade between the United States and Uruguay has generally increased. Total trade between the two countries, which amounted to \$46,922,000 in 1929, fell off sharply during the depression years to a low of \$5,321,000 in 1932, but by 1937 it had risen to \$27,012,000. In 1938 it underwent a severe set-back to only \$9,811,000, but in 1939 it rose again to \$14,558,000 and in 1940, stimulated by the war, it reached \$28,904,000.

In the decade prior to 1931, United States exports to Uruguay were greater, on the average, than its imports from that country, but during the following decade, 1931-40, the United States had on the average an import balance in Uruguayan trade. United States exports to Uruguay consist primarily of manufactured and processed articles, and imports from Uruguay are chiefly raw materials. Of total United States exports to Uruguay in 1940, amounting to \$11,126,000, iron and steel products accounted for \$3,473,000; agricultural machinery and implements, \$859,000; automobiles, parts, and accessories, \$813,000; wood and paper products, \$492,000; cotton yarn, \$221,000; radio apparatus, \$171,000; food products, \$167,000; leaf tobacco, \$132,000; automatic refrigerators and parts, \$105,000; office appliances and parts, \$74,000; sulfur, \$69,000; and aeronautical apparatus, \$59,000. Total imports into the United States from Uruguay in the same year were valued at \$17,009,000, of which wool accounted for \$11,815,000; flaxseed, \$2,294,000; and canned meat, \$824,000.

In the new trade agreement, tariff concessions are obtained on a long list of United States agricultural and industrial products included in 141 Uruguayan tariff items. Exports of these products from the United States to Uruguay in 1940 were valued at \$2,715,000, or 24.4 percent, of the \$11,126,000 total value of United States exports of domestic merchandise to Uruguay in that year.

Duty rates below those that formerly applied are established on the following United States products imported into Uruguay: Raisins with seeds and seedless; walnuts and pecans, shelled and unshelled; fresh apples (from September 1 to the last day of February, inclusive); dried prunes; canned mackerel and salmon; canned asparagus; concentrated grape juice; unsweetened fruit and vegetable juices; sweetened fruit juices, liquid, and syrups for beverages without alcohol; packaged cigarettes; medicinal petroleum jelly; liquid insecticide, with a base of pyrethrum or of ethers and hydrocarbides; exposed motion picture film; varnishes; tea or pitch pine, sugar pine, California white pine, Douglas fir, and oak lumber; unassembled barrels and casks; specified composition boards; certain hygienic paper; pistons for lightweight industrial machinery; specified automobile parts and accessories (engine, clutch, transmission, differential, and steering gear parts); passenger automobiles and chassis, busses and bus chassis, truck chassis, drivers' cabs for trucks or busses; electric plants for light and power, including wind-driven electric power generating devices; cash registers; standard and portable typewriters; calculating, adding, book-keeping, and accounting machines and parts for same; radio, automobile, and other storage batteries and parts for same; parts and accessories for radio receiving sets; radio tubes; automatic refrigerators, complete or incomplete, and separate

refrigerator mechanisms; washing, ironing, dishwashing, and all machines operated by electricity, except industrial machines; and electric fans, standing or wall.

Bound against any increase in existing tariff rates are the following United States products imported into Uruguay: Hops; sardines in oil or other media, including tomato sauce, in hermetically sealed containers; flours, including malted milk; leaf tobacco; sulfur; specified naval stores; composition roof coatings of asphaltic base; staves, shooks, and headings for barrels and casks; certain parts for light motors; specified automobile parts and accessories; cotton yarns, crude and colored, including mercerized yarn; lightweight industrial machinery; replacement and repair parts for industrial machinery; iron and steel filing cabinets and furniture; and radio receivers without tubes.

The present duty-free status of the following United States products was bound for the life of the agreement: Airplane motors; tractors, agricultural and other; aviation apparatus equipped with motors; parts for replacement and assembly of aircraft, excluding motors; all kinds of plows; and windmills and their accessories and parts.

Outstanding among the tariff reductions are those obtained on lumber, the duty on which was reduced 50 percent (except oak lumber, on which the reduction was 30 percent). The agreement also binds for its duration a Uruguayan decree of June 7, 1940, which provides that, under certain conditions, materials for construction, including lumber, will receive a reduction of one-half the import duty. Furthermore the agreement specifically provides that this reduction of one-half the duty will be applied to the reduced rate specified in the agreement for the various kinds of pine and Douglas fir lumber. Thus, lumber of

tions specified in the Uruguayan decree of June 7, 1940, will enter at a duty 75 percent below that in effect previous to that decree. United States exports of lumber to Uruguay, particularly of tea or pitch pine, were large in the past but declined somewhat in recent years. Uruguayan concessions in this agreement are expected to improve the position of these types of United States lumber in the Uruguayan market.

Others among the tariff reductions that are expected particularly to benefit United States sales in Uruguayan markets are those on office machines and appliances; the various listed food products; cigarettes; automobiles, parts, and accessories; automatic refrigerators and separate refrigerator mechanisms; and the various other types of electrical equipment.

For the majority of the products on which the United States grants tariff concessions to Uruguay in the new agreement, Uruguay and Argentina rank as the principal sources of supply and the concessions granted to Uruguay are the same as those included in the trade agreement signed between the United States and Argentina at Buenos Aires on October 14, 1941.¹ Commodities on which the United States tariff is reduced are: Casein or lactarene and mixtures thereof; crude and refined glycerin; beef and mutton tallow, edible and inedible; oleo oil and oleo stearin; extract of meat, including fluid; canned beef, including corned beef; beef or veal, pickled or cured; canned meats not elsewhere specified, and prepared or preserved meats, not specially provided for (including liver pastes); flaxseed; specified wools, not finer than 40's, and wools not specially provided for, not finer than 44's, in the grease or washed, scoured, on the skin, and sorted or matchings, if not scoured; cattle hides; calf and kip skins;

¹ See BULLETIN, December 1941, pp. 691-694.

and buffalo hides, not specially provided for.

Canned corned beef is the principal commodity included in the concession. United States production of canned beef in recent years has been relatively small and is mainly of beef specialties other than corned beef. Nearly all corned beef canned in the United States has been for Government contracts. Much of the domestic beef of the type formerly canned has been used in the manufacture of sausage, a more profitable outlet, and civilian demand for canned corned beef has been filled by the imported product. Such imports amounted to 78.6 million pounds in 1938, 85.9 million in 1939, 61.3 million in 1940, and 39.1 million in the first 6 months of 1941. For many years Uruguay was the principal source of imports of canned beef into the United States, but since 1937 it has been second to Argentina.

Flaxseed is another important item covered by the agreement. Under the Tariff Act of 1913 flaxseed was dutiable at 20 cents per bushel; under the act of 1921, at 30 cents; under the act of 1922, at 40 cents; under Presidential proclamation of June 13, 1929, at 56 cents; and under the Tariff Act of 1930, at 65 cents. Under the act of 1930 the ad valorem equivalent was 57 percent in 1939.

Under the trade agreement with Uruguay, as in that with Argentina, the rate is $32\frac{1}{2}$ cents per bushel for the duration of the existing abnormal situation in the flaxseed trade. Thirty days after the President shall have proclaimed that the abnormal trade situation has terminated, the rate of duty shall become 50 cents per bushel. Under the agreement rate of $32\frac{1}{2}$ cents per bushel, the ad valorem equivalent, on the basis of 1939 imports, would have been 28 percent and under the 50-cent duty it would have been 43 percent.

Flaxseed is used almost exclusively in the manufacture of linseed oil, an essential ingredient of many paints, varnishes, floor coverings, and other products. Building and industrial operations, including production for military purposes, involving the use of linseed oil, are at high levels. At the same time imports of tung oil, perilla oil, and synthetic resins for which linseed oil may sometimes be substituted, have been interrupted. United States flaxseed requirements for 1942 are estimated at record levels and domestic production has never been equal to domestic requirements, even in normal times. The percentage of United States flaxseed crushings supplied by imports averaged 55 percent during the 10 years 1930-39 and in 1940 amounted to 31 percent. Uruguay has been second to Argentina as a supplier of United States flaxseed imports since 1937, having provided 5.8 percent in 1938, 4.1 percent in 1939, and 15.9 percent in 1940. Also, substantial quantities of flaxseed produced in Uruguay are exported from Argentina and are credited to that country in United States import statistics.

Another commodity of considerable importance included in the agreement is wools. More than 99 percent of United States wool production is of the finer types of wool not covered by the concessions. United States production of even the finer types is generally considerably less than requirements for domestic consumption, and the total United States wool clip is far below the usual domestic consumption when carpet wools are included. The only production of true carpet wools in the United States is about 100,000 pounds a year, shorn from flocks owned by Indians in the Southwest. Thus less than 1 percent of United States wool production is of the types affected by the concession in the agreements with

Uruguay (and with Argentina), and domestic production of those types has been decreasing for a number of years. Uruguay was the principal supplier of the 40's/44's wools, specified in the agreement, imported into the United States in 1936. Although New Zealand became the chief source of such imports from 1937 through 1939, Uruguay and Argentina have nevertheless continued to be important suppliers.

The agreement with Uruguay also binds on the free list imports of the following commodities that are either not produced at all in the United States or not produced in quantities sufficient to supply domestic demand: Sheep, lamb, and goat casings; tankage (not for fertilizer); crude bones, bone dust, bone meal, bone ash, and animal carbon suitable only for fertilizing purposes; sausage casings other than sheep, lamb, and goat; dried blood; tankage (for fertilizer); integuments, tendons, and intestines, not sausage casings; and unmanufactured agates.

The general provisions of the agreement embody the basic principle of equality of treatment essential to the development of international trade upon a sound and non-discriminatory basis. There are provisions for the mutual accord of unconditional most-favored-nation treatment with respect to customs duties; nondiscriminatory treatment in matters relating to import quotas, prohibitions, other forms of import restrictions, exchange control, and foreign purchases by either Government or by government monopolies. There is also a provision for broad consultation between the two Governments, through the medium of a mixed commission, in regard to all matters affecting the operation of the agreement. As to application of the agreement, it is provided that it shall apply, on the part of the United States, to the continental United States and to the terri-

tories and possessions included in its customs territory, the most important of which are Alaska, Hawaii, and Puerto Rico, and the most-favored-nation provisions will also apply to the possessions of the United States having separate tariffs, including the Philippines, the Virgin Islands, American Samoa, and the Island of Guam. Excepted from application of the agreement are special advantages granted by either Government to adjacent countries to facilitate frontier traffic and advantages accorded to any third country as a result of a customs union. There is also included the usual exception relating to special advantages accorded by the United States and its territories and possessions or the Panama Canal Zone to one another or to the Republic of Cuba.

In an exchange of notes attached to the agreement, the United States agrees, furthermore, not to invoke the most-favored-nation provisions in respect of any tariff preferences which Uruguay may accord, under specified conditions, to contiguous countries, Bolivia, or Paraguay, looking to the gradual and ultimate achievement of a customs union between Uruguay and any such country. The United States also agrees not to invoke the nondiscriminatory trade provisions in respect to special facilities which Uruguay may accord to imports of articles originating in the so-called "sterling area" covered by the existing payments arrangement in effect between Uruguay and the United Kingdom. Since the reason for this exception arises primarily from Uruguay's inability to convert freely into dollars the proceeds derived from its exports to the "sterling area," the note provides that this exception shall terminate as soon as it becomes possible for Uruguay to convert its sterling balances into free currencies.

It is further provided that nothing in the

agreement shall prevent the adoption or enforcement by either country of measures relating to imports or exports of gold and silver, sanitary regulations and the like, or measures relating to public security or imposed for the protection of the country's essential interests in time of war or other national emergency.—D. M. T.

Honduran Highway Law

All previous highway legislation in Honduras was repealed and a new highway law put into effect by Legislative Decree No. 68 of March 6, 1942. The new law has four parts: highway system, planning, revenue, and general provisions.

The first section defines the various types of roads: first- and second-class highways for automotive traffic, roads for animal-drawn traffic, and rural roads. It provides that the surveying, opening, construction, maintenance, and administration of all national roads except rural and animal-

drawn traffic roads shall be handled by the Department of Development, through the General Highway Board.

The road construction plan embraces such activities as surveying and localization, opening of highways, modernization and upkeep, bridge building, and the purchase of machinery.

The revenue section of the law lists eight ways in which highway projects are to be financed, as follows: an import tax of 20 centavos a gallon on gasoline and 10 centavos a gallon on other petroleum products; stamp taxes on mining and mineral licenses; tolls; levies on special concessions; proceeds from the rental of national public lands; road mileage and water right levies; head tax (to be levied, with some specified exceptions, on all male persons, nationals or foreigners, over 18 years of age, and payable by non-professionals and unskilled laborers, if they so prefer, in road work in lieu of cash); and levies ranging from 50 centavos to 1 lempira (25 to 50 cents U.S.



Courtesy U. S. Bureau of Public Roads

A BRIDGE BETWEEN TEGUCIGALPA AND SAN LORENZO



Courtesy of Herbert C. Lanks

IMPROVED HIGHWAYS IN HONDURAS PROMOTE TRADE

currency) on real property and commercial establishments.

To insure collection of the highway head tax and the property levy, the law prescribes that presentation of receipts for payment thereof may be required; (a) upon demand of the authorities; (b) in order to collect money from the national government; (c) to conduct any transaction with or make a written request of the national, municipal, or district governments; (d) to swear to deeds or other documents before a notary public; and (e) to obtain passports. Twenty percent of the proceeds of the tax on real property and commercial establishments will be retained in the municipalities or districts where collected for local highway work, and the remainder is allocated to the national highway fund.

The final section of the law sets forth various general provisions of enforcement and administration. On April 24, 1942, the Executive Power issued a Regulation of the law (Resolution No. 1604), which

enumerates the personnel of the General Highway Board, their functions and duties, and prescribes rules and regulations for highway administration and traffic control.

The new law and its regulation indicate that Honduras recognizes the value and importance of a good highway system, and they provide the framework for an efficient program which will be of benefit to the entire country.

Cinchona cultivation in Mexico

The Japanese conquest of Java and other Dutch East Indies islands was not merely a military defeat; its effects will be indirectly felt throughout the entire world. The Dutch East Indies have long been the chief source of supply of quinine, the most effective cure for malaria. Since quinine can no longer be secured from that source, it will be necessary to look elsewhere for the medicine.

A recent article published in the *Mexican-*

American Review foresees the day when Mexico will become one of the most important quinine producers of the Americas.

Mexico, which its Department of Health reports has many thousands of malaria cases every year, initiated experiments to solve its problem over a year ago when a quinine experiment station was established in the State of Chiapas. It was not the first attempt at quinine production made in Mexico; but previous efforts proved unsuccessful and were abandoned, possibly because the best yielding species of cinchona tree were not utilized. At the Chiapas experiment station some 67,000 cinchona plants of various species are now growing; and the Department of Health's goal is 80,000 producing plants within four years, a sufficient number to take care of domestic quinine needs.

The experiment station is under the direction of Jesús Patiño Navarrete, of the Department of Health, who spent several

years in the Dutch East Indies studying cultivation methods. A small experimental factory has been set up at the station; and it is estimated, that eventually 300 to 400 kilograms of quinine can be produced from the cinchona trees already planted, thereby greatly cutting the cost of the medicine. If these experiments are successful, expansion in cultivation and extraction of quinine will be the next step. The Department of Health is also considering the possibilities of producing atabrin and plasmochin, synthetic substitutes for quinine.

The Mexican Health Department foresees great possibilities for quinine production in Mexico; and if experiments have the desired results Mexico will contribute greatly to the field of medicine, for with the exception of the wild cinchona that grows in South America and a small plantation in Guatemala there is no quinine production of any importance in this hemisphere.

NECROLOGY

ROBERTO M. ORTIZ.—Ex-President of Argentina, prominent lawyer, distinguished sociologist and economist, and outstanding continental figure. Born in Buenos Aires September 24, 1886. While still very young he joined in the civic life of the country from the ranks of the Radical Civic Union (*Unión Cívica Radical*). Took part in the revolution of February 4, 1905. In 1909 he was graduated from the Faculty of Law and Social Sciences of the National University of Buenos Aires. Ten years of political activity led him to become, in 1918, a member of the City Council of Buenos Aires, where he stood out because of his great interest in civic problems. In 1920 he went on to the Chamber of Deputies and rendered brilliant parliamentary

service. In 1924 he began his activities in administrative functions. Honorary member of the Commission for Low-cost Housing (*Comisión de Casas Baratas*). Administrator General of Internal Revenue in 1924. Called by the President of the Republic, Dr. Marcelo T. Alvear, he worked with that administration as Minister of Public Works from 1925 to 1928, when he retired to private life. In 1935 General Justo, then President of the Republic, appointed him Minister of Finance, in which post he also rendered great service. President of the Republic from 1938 until June 24, 1942 when he resigned because of poor health. Died in Buenos Aires July 15, 1942. Author of *Ideario democrático a través de la república* (1937).

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THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

WASHINGTON, D. C.

L. S. ROWE, *Director General* PEDRO DE ALBA, *Assistant Director*

THE PAN AMERICAN UNION, now 52 years old, is an international organization created and maintained by the twenty-one American Republics: Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela. Originally known as the International Bureau of the American Republics, it was established in 1890 in accordance with a resolution passed April 14 of that year by the First International Conference of American States, which convened at Washington in October 1889. April 14 is celebrated annually throughout the Americas as Pan American Day.

The work of the Union was greatly expanded by resolutions of the Second Conference, held at Mexico City in 1901; the Third, at Rio de Janeiro in 1906; the Fourth, at Buenos Aires in 1910; the Fifth, at Santiago, Chile, in 1923; the Sixth, at Habana in 1928; the Seventh, at Montevideo in 1933; and the Eighth, at Lima in 1938. The creation of machinery for the peaceful settlement of inter-American disputes is one of the outstanding achievements of these Conferences.

PURPOSE AND ORGANIZATION

The purpose of the Pan American Union is to promote peace, commerce, and friendship between the Republics of the American Continent by fostering constructive cooperation among them. The Union is supported by annual contributions from all the countries, in amounts proportional to population, and its services are available to officials

and private citizens alike. Its affairs are administered by a Director General and an Assistant Director, elected by and responsible to a Governing Board composed of the Secretary of State of the United States and representatives in Washington of the other American governments.

ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISIONS

The administrative divisions of the Pan American Union are organized to carry out the purposes for which it was created. There are special divisions dealing with foreign trade, statistics, economics, intellectual cooperation, music, juridical matters, agricultural cooperation, travel, and labor and social information. All these divisions maintain close relations with official and unofficial bodies in the countries members of the Union. The Columbus Memorial Library contains 110,000 volumes and many maps. The BULLETIN of the Pan American Union, published monthly in English, Spanish, and Portuguese, is the official organ of the institution. For a list of other publications of the Union, see the inside back cover.

PAN AMERICAN CONFERENCES

The Pan American Union also serves as the permanent organ of the International Conferences of American States, usually referred to as the Pan American Conferences. In addition to preparing the programs and regulations, the Union gives effect to the conclusions of the Conferences by conducting special inquiries and investigations and by convening or arranging for special or technical conferences in the intervals between the International Conferences.



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ILLUSTRATION AT SIDE: PATIO, PAN AMERICAN UNION





Courtesy of Braden Copper Company

A CHILEAN COPPER MINE

The Andes contain rich mines of copper, one of the most needed strategic materials.

BULLETIN OF THE PAN AMERICAN UNION

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DECEMBER 1942

The Effect of the War on Trade in the Americas

EDGAR B. BROSSARD

Member, United States Tariff Commission

THE present war has had a marked effect upon the foreign trade of the 21 American republics. In point of time the consideration of the influence of the war on this trade may be divided for convenience into two periods: (1) that from the beginning of hostilities in September 1939 to the end of 1940, and (2) that beginning January 1941.

September 1939–December 1940

In the first period the trade of the American republics with Europe, already adversely affected by trade and exchange

Address made before the Institute of Inter-American Affairs, sponsored jointly by Columbia University and National Broadcasting Company's Inter-American University of the Air, New York, October 11, 1942.

Dr. Brossard represents the Tariff Commission on the Interdepartmental Committee on Cooperation with the American Republics, and on the Interdepartmental Committee on Inter-American Affairs.

controls, was further dislocated by the interference of belligerents with commerce, by the loss of markets for many products, and by the increased demand for certain strategic materials and foodstuffs. In this period continental Europe ceased to be an important market for Latin American products and an important source of Latin American imports. The significance of this development is indicated by the fact that in 1937 approximately 30 percent of all exports from Latin America went to continental Europe, and 35 percent of all Latin American imports came from continental Europe. With the outbreak of the war, therefore, approximately one-third of the foreign trade of Latin American countries was eliminated. This situation affected certain of these countries more seriously than others.

Part of this loss in export trade was offset by increased sales to the United States and the United Kingdom. But the United Kingdom for financial reasons confined its purchases, so far as possible, within the Empire.

It might have been expected that those countries which customarily had the largest proportion of their trade with continental Europe would be the most adversely affected, but this was not so in all cases, because different commodities were differently affected. The United Kingdom, during the earlier period of the war, was a substantial purchaser of Argentine meats, and there was also a ready demand for Argentine wool and hides and skins. The prices of some Argentine products advanced after the outbreak of the war, but the prices of others, notably wheat and corn, declined. Other commodities which at first were seriously affected were coffee, cacao, bananas, sugar, petroleum, copper, and nitrates.

Although the United States generally takes about one-half of all Latin American exports of coffee, that product had its second largest market in continental Europe. The European market was eliminated by the blockade and, as a result, coffee stocks accumulated and prices declined. A somewhat similar situation prevailed for cacao, large stocks of which were, and still are, available to the British in the Gold Coast and Nigeria. Bananas are not essential war materials and exports, particularly to Europe and the United Kingdom, declined. The price of sugar declined because of the inability of the Netherlands Indies and (to a lesser extent) Cuba to dispose of their stocks in customary European markets. The United Kingdom concentrated its purchases of petroleum within countries in the Near East and curtailed its imports from Venezuela, Mexico, Colombia, and

Peru. The trade of Chile was depressed because of the decline in the European demand for its copper and nitrates.

Other commodities were indirectly affected by the war. For example, henequen fiber from Mexico declined in price, even though 85 percent of the exports of that product ordinarily went to the United States; this was due to large imports into the United States of sisal from the Netherlands Indies which could not be shipped to some of the formerly important markets.

During this first period of the war, the American republics that were able to sell substantial quantities of their products to the United Kingdom were relieved, of course, of mounting stocks, but they were compelled to accept in payment either their own British-held bonds or blocked sterling exchange which could be used only in the purchase of British goods. Inasmuch as these goods were not available in adequate quantities and varieties, this arrangement did not prove to be fully satisfactory. Other American republics, unable to export their products to Europe or the United Kingdom, were faced with increased stocks and depressed prices because of the disruption of trade channels.

In the first 16 months following the outbreak of the war, the trade of the United States with the other American republics increased markedly. Comparing 1940 with 1938 United States imports from those countries increased about 37 percent, and exports thereto, 45 percent. In the same period United States imports from all other countries of the world increased 33 percent, and exports to those countries, 27 percent. The rapid rise in United States exports to Latin America was due largely to the inability of that area to obtain goods from Europe. In 1940 United States exports to Latin America were valued at 727 million dollars, and imports therefrom, at 620

million. In consequence, the United States, which usually has an import balance of trade with Latin America, had an export balance in 1940 amounting to nearly 107 million dollars.

Beginning January 1941

In 1941 the trade problems of the American republics were radically altered. The much expanded defense and Lend-Lease programs of the United States and the entrance of this country into the war in December 1941 greatly stimulated the demand for essential commodities. Imports into the United States were increased and exports were restricted, at first by the unusual demand in this country and later by official action. The problem of Latin American countries became one of increasing the production of required raw materials for export, chiefly to the United States, and of obtaining imports, mainly from the United States, of the products essential to the satisfaction of their military and civilian requirements.

This trend is reflected in the trade statistics. In the first 9 months of 1941, United States exports to Latin America amounted to 626 million dollars, and imports therefrom to 716 million. For the first time in 3 years, the United States had an import balance with Latin America amounting to 90 million dollars. Although current trade statistics cannot be published, because of the war, this trend in trade has been even more pronounced in 1942. As a result, the Latin American countries are building up credit balances in the United States, a part of which they cannot now use, except for debt service. Such credits, however, will be available for the purchase of goods after the war ends.

Many Latin American commodities of which there was formerly a surplus are now in short supply because of the increased demand. These include tin (from Bolivia), copper and nitrates (from Chile), lead, zinc, manganese, chromite, and a long list of other essential minerals. There are also numerous agricultural and forest products for which the demand is greatly



MAKING BAGS FOR SALVADOREAN COFFEE

The demand for henequen, of which there was formerly a surplus, has been greatly enlarged by war conditions and the price has risen.



Courtesy of American Can Company

STRIPS OF TIN PLATE FOR CANS

Because of the increased use of tin, the United States has insufficient supplies of this commodity, of which Bolivia is an important producer.

enlarged; these include cacao, flaxseed, henequen, babassu nuts, and rubber. The Metals Reserve Company has contracts with several of the American republics to purchase all of the production of a number of strategic metals not taken by private United States citizens. The entire Cuban output of sugar in 1942 was purchased by this Government at a price much higher than that prevailing before the war or even during its earlier period. The prices of cacao and henequen have increased appreciably; the duty on flaxseed has been reduced; and efforts are being made to stimulate the production of rubber and the gathering of babassu nuts.

But not all Latin American trade problems have been solved. The market for Argentine wheat and corn is still severely

restricted. In fact, experiments are being conducted in Argentina to determine the usefulness of corn as fuel for locomotives, and the Argentine Government is purchasing grains at higher than market prices as an aid to producers. Coffee is finding a more profitable market in the United States because of higher prices under the Inter-American Coffee Agreement, but sales to other markets are narrowly limited, and substantial stocks of coffee are being either stored or destroyed. Exports of bananas have continued to decline because of inadequate shipping facilities.

Total exports from the American republics in terms of dollars have increased during 1941 and 1942 because of rising prices and because of the export of increased

quantities of certain commodities, but not all these commodities have participated in this expansion. Exports of many products that are considered nonessential to the war efforts are almost certain to be curtailed further because of the shortage in shipping.

Although exports from Latin American countries have increased since the beginning of 1941, imports thereto have declined because of the inability of the United States and the United Kingdom, under war conditions, adequately to satisfy these demands, some of which are essential and urgent. Tin plate is required for the canning of Argentine, Uruguayan, and Brazilian meats. Automobiles and trucks are needed for essential uses in Latin America, as in the United States. Mining equipment is necessary to increase, or even to maintain, the production of strategic metals which are so urgently required in this country. Chemicals are essential to the purification of the water supplies of many of the Latin American cities. Steel is needed for the construction of bridges, and special equipment is required for the building of roads and the expansion of plant capacities. In a number of Latin American countries, additional rolling stock and other railroad equipment must be obtained if the roads are to transport the increased tonnage required by the war effort of the United States. The problem of Latin American countries is no longer that of obtaining exchange with which to purchase desired imports; instead, it is chiefly one of obtaining essential imports in adequate quantities.

One of the important results of the war has been the marked increase in the value of the trade between the American republics themselves. In 1941, the value of Argentine exports to Brazil, Chile, Uruguay, Bolivia, Paraguay, Peru, and Colombia together advanced 23 percent over those of 1940, while imports from Brazil,

Peru, Venezuela, and Chile were 41 percent greater in 1941 than in the preceding year. The value of Brazilian exports to and imports from other South American countries rose 90 percent and 15 percent, respectively. Shipments of Cuban commodities to Mexico, Panama, and Argentina, altogether, increased 284 percent in value, and deliveries of goods to that country from Mexico, Chile, Brazil, and Argentina advanced 172 percent. Colombian import values from other Latin American countries were 148 percent greater than in 1940 but export values declined 31 percent. The value of Costa Rican exports to Argentina, Panama, and Colombia increased 389 percent, while the value of goods received from Peru and Mexico rose 92 percent.

Wheat, corn, cotton, tobacco, sugar, meats, leather goods, timber, and many other commodities formerly sold by Latin American countries in Europe, are now finding new, though limited, markets in the Western Hemisphere. Except for these intraregional markets and sources of supply, the United Nations, principally the United States and the United Kingdom, are almost the only countries with which Latin American countries may trade. Their export trade, therefore, is directly affected by the war and by the demands which it creates in the United States and the United Kingdom, and their import trade, by the ability of these two countries to supply the required products.

Cooperation in the Americas

Since the United States entered the war the necessity for close cooperation on the economic front between all of the American republics has been demonstrated more forcefully than ever before. The other American republics have need of the United States market to replace the markets lost in Europe, and they are peculiarly



BABASSU NUTS

Babassu nuts, which grow on a Brazilian palm, yield an excellent oil for soap and margarine.

dependent on the United States for products which they do not themselves manufacture. On the other hand, the United States urgently requires many raw materials which they can or do produce. The inadequacy of productive capacity and of shipping, however, are factors which operate to prevent the complete satisfaction of demands in both the United States and the other American republics.

To these problems the various countries are devoting their full attention. The United States is bending every effort to increase its production of ships and to protect through danger zones the ships now traveling the trade routes north and south. Many of the American republics have entered into agreements with the United States to sell to this country their entire production of a long list of strategic commodities, thus providing the United

States with essential materials and securing for themselves assured markets at profitable prices. Such commodities include copper from Chile and Mexico; tin and tungsten from Bolivia; manganese from Brazil and Cuba; antimony from Bolivia, Mexico, and Peru; chrome ore from Cuba; and sodium nitrate from Chile. Moreover, the United States is attempting to provide the necessary machinery and equipment to expand the production of many of these essential products. On its part the United States is allocating from its limited supplies of such vital materials as rubber, tin, and steel, stocks to meet requirements in the other American republics, and these countries are cooperating by restricting the use of such products to those most essential to their economies.

Not all commodities produced in Latin

America, however, are in short supply. Some surpluses exist because of the absence of adequate markets or because of the inadequacy of shipping facilities. One need mention only a few to illustrate the point: bananas in the Central American Republics; coffee in Brazil; cotton in Brazil and Peru; and wheat and corn in Argentina. The Inter-American Coffee Agreement operated to raise the disastrously low price of coffee in the United States and thus benefited the coffee-producing countries in the Western Hemisphere. Efforts are being made by some of the Latin American countries to exchange at least a part of their surpluses, and plans are being considered to purchase the stocks of some commodities of which there are excessive supplies.

Many Latin American countries recognize in this emergency an opportunity to increase their industrialization and to diversify their agriculture. They realize that such action will increase the standards of living of their people by providing profitable employment and by reducing the burden of agricultural surpluses. The United States too has endorsed this program not only because of its benefits to Latin American countries but also because experience has shown that our largest trade has been with those countries which are advanced industrially and have high standards of living. Our country, therefore, has encouraged the establishment of a number of industries in the other American republics, such as the iron and steel industry in Brazil. The United States has also sought to encourage the diversification of agriculture wherever such diversification appeared practicable. The plan has two objectives: (1) to make the various regions of Latin America more self-sufficient in foodstuffs and (2) to provide the United States with a nearby source of supply for certain essential agricultural and forest

products which this country does not produce and cannot obtain from customary sources: for example, rubber, quinine, certain vegetable oils, and Manila hemp. A number of Latin American countries, including Mexico, Panama, Haiti, Colombia, Venezuela, and Brazil, are cooperating in this program.

Coupled with industrialization and the diversification of agriculture as permanent benefits to the economies of the American Republics are plans for the development and improvement of transportation facilities in the Western Hemisphere. By means of international connections the Pan American Highway will soon unite without interruption Alaska and the Panama Canal. From there, extending south, it will later connect the capitals of the ten republics of South America. This artery will stand for all time not only as a symbol of unity, but also as an important factor in actually linking more closely the countries of the Western Hemisphere. The increased use of the airplane is another vital instrument in knitting together the American republics by providing for rapid communication. The air lines of the Western Hemisphere are now almost entirely owned and operated by the countries of this hemisphere and their facilities are being rapidly expanded.

New trade connections between the United States and the other American republics and between these republics themselves are now being formed. After the war is ended not all such connections will be retained, but many of them will remain. To that extent hemisphere trade will be enhanced. Moreover, if current developments result in better-balanced economies and improved standards of living for the American republics, inter-American trade will be expanded and the American republics will be drawn more closely together in mutually advantageous relationships.

Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture

Mexico City, July 6-16, 1942

DOROTHY M. TERCERO

Assistant Editor, BULLETIN of the Pan American Union

THE double problem, *How can agriculture in the Americas best serve in the united war effort?* and *How can disaster in agriculture and its related fields be averted after the war?* is a vast topic. That much can be accomplished toward formulating the answer, however, was demonstrated last summer in Mexico City, when approximately 180 delegates representing the twenty-one American Republics assembled in historic Chapultepec Castle from July 6 to 16, at the Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture. Ten days was a brief time for consideration of the many implications of the mobilization of American agriculture for the war effort and organized agricultural planning for the post-war period, but the spirit of good will and cooperation shown by the delegates and their earnest application to the task at hand were more than sufficient to surmount all obstacles in the way of achievement of their purpose.

The date of the Conference, originally set for October 1942, was advanced to July in order to give the nations of America an earlier opportunity, through their expert agricultural representatives, to confer on the urgent production, marketing, transportation, and kindred questions created by the war.

The Conference was officially inaugurated on July 6, 1942, by the President of Mexico, General Manuel Ávila Camacho.

Mexico's distinguished, capable, and popular Secretary of Agriculture, the Hon. Marte R. Gómez, was elected Chairman. In a brilliant address welcoming the delegates to the Conference, he stressed agriculture's role in winning the war. "The mandate of the present moment is for us to produce," he said, and further pointed out the need of plans for utilization of all the soils, climates, and latitudes of the continent, the improvement and development of unexploited regions and crops, and increased production of certain items, particularly in tropical agriculture, no longer available from other parts of the world. The Hon. Claude Wickard, United States Secretary of Agriculture, was named First Vice Chairman, and Dr. Andrés Rivero Agüero, Secretary of Agriculture of Cuba, Second Vice Chairman. Both addressed the Conference at the opening session, Secretary Wickard's subject being agriculture's part in the war effort of the United States, while Dr. Rivero Agüero discussed the many economic problems imposed on agriculture by present-day conditions. Dr. Pedro de Alba, Assistant Director of the Pan American Union, also spoke at the inaugural meeting, describing in broad outlines the special heed paid to agriculture by the liberators and statesmen of the Americas in the formation of their policies of national advancement from the time of independence.

Much of the success of the Conference should most assuredly be attributed to the good work of the Mexican Government's Organizing Committee. By the time the delegates assembled, translations of the majority of the papers and addresses were available, in either complete or summarized form. The labors of the Conference were divided into thirteen sections, treating the following subjects: Agrology; entomology and phytopathology; research and

educational problems; forestry; animal industry and wildlife conservation; climatology; chemistry and technology; products of present day importance; statistics; production, transportation, and distribution; commerce and credit; rural organization; agricultural engineering; and resolutions.¹

The subject matter of Section IX, products of present day importance, was

¹ See program of the Conference, BULLETIN, June 1942, pp. 332-334.



SECOND INTER-AMERICAN CONFERENCE OF AGRICULTURE

The President of Mexico, General Manuel Ávila Camacho, briefly addressed the delegates at the opening session. Others in the photograph, from left to right, are: the Hon. Claude R. Wickard, Secretary of Agriculture of the United States and First Vice Chairman of the Conference; Señor Aurelio Pámanes Escobedo, member of the Chamber of Deputies and Chairman of the Permanent Committee of the National Congress of Mexico; and the Hon. Marte R. Gómez, Secretary of Agriculture of Mexico and Chairman of the Conference.

of primary interest to the delegates, judging by the number of them (thirty-three) who chose to participate in that Section's discussions. Subcommittees were appointed to consider special groups of products, such as rubber; animal and vegetable fibers; coffee, cacao, and yerba maté; aromatic, medicinal, and insecticidal plants; woods, including balsa; meats, grains, and oil-bearing plants; sugar, fruits, and vegetables; and Chilean nitrate and other fertilizers. The sections on rural organization, commerce and credit, statistics, production, transportation, and distribution, research and educational problems, and animal industry and wildlife conservation were all conspicuous for the large number of delegates on their respective committees.

From the deliberations of the Conference seventy-six resolutions were evolved to serve as a guide for present and future inter-American agricultural policy and planning. These covered many aspects of agricultural activity and economics. Among the subjects of important resolutions, the following, which in many instances not only recommended the action to be taken but suggested specific ways and means of carrying the recommendations into effect, may be briefly mentioned:

Improvement of standards of living of farmers and farm workers in America; creation of an inter-American bank of agricultural credit; establishment of systems of agricultural credit in countries where such systems do not already exist; promotion of farm cooperative organizations; agricultural and forestal surveys in each country to determine resources of strategic products; stimulation of use of farm machinery; soil studies; prevention of soil erosion; crop control to avoid surpluses and equitable distribution of agricultural and livestock products; establishment of rural centers and rural housing

projects; improvement of standards of living among Indian populations; rural electrification; integrated systems of rural education; surplus commodity products; establishment of organizations for study and protection of wildlife; exchange of plants and fruits among the American countries; exploitation of oil-bearing fruits, nuts, and seeds; storage and preservation of farm products; food conservation by means of dehydration; model rural developments; stock registration; maritime transportation; exploitation of native plants of strategic importance (drugs, gums, resins, essential oils, spices, etc.); industrial use of certain agricultural products; establishment of laboratories for study of uses for agricultural surpluses or by-products; exploitation of wild rubber and planting of high production rubber trees; encouragement of cacao institutes; home economics; development of forest policies to guarantee and stimulate intelligent use of public and private forest wealth; national entomological services; and construction and extension of irrigation works.

A number of resolutions charged the Pan American Union with the action necessary to put them into effect.

The great common factor of all the resolutions was inter-American cooperation; united action was plainly regarded by the Conference as indispensable to the broad program of activity envisaged by the recommendations. In his address delivered at the closing plenary session on July 16, President Ávila Camacho summed up the accomplishments of the Conference in these words:

The conclusions reached by this Conference will not by themselves dispel the shadows that encompass us. Other things will be required: unceasing activity, firm decision, and strict coordination between action of governments and the genuine will of their peoples. The Conference has, however, . . . honestly, courageously, and

clearly laid down general rules for our guidance. It has shown how the measures adopted in each republic should be linked with those taken by the other nations.

Permanent Committee of the Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture

The final resolution, No. LXXVI, putting into effect Art. XXV of the bylaws of the Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture (which ordered the establishment of a Permanent Committee charged with carrying out the recommendations approved by the Conference), named Mexico City as headquarters of the Permanent Committee and stipulated that each of the American Republics should have a representative, if desired, on that Committee.

On October 7, 1942 the Permanent Committee was officially installed at Mexico City. The ceremonies were presided over by the Secretary of Agriculture of Mexico, the Hon. Marte R. Gómez, and representatives of all but two of the American countries attended.

Three subcommittees were appointed to initiate immediate action directed toward fulfillment of the following specific recommendations of the Conference: (1) The preparation of a draft of statutes for an Inter-American Society of Soil Sciences, and the organization, in cooperation with the respective governments, of an international conference of soil sciences; (2) the study of means of disposing of surpluses that have accumulated because of the war, or, if that is not possible, consideration of economic measures for their conservation in order to make them available to meet extraordinary consumption needs in the post-war period; and (3) the formulation of rules, regulations, and the program of the Permanent Committee.

Secretary of Agriculture Gómez was elected chairman of the Permanent Committee; the Ambassador of Argentina in Mexico, Señor Alberto M. Candioti, and the Ambassador of Cuba in Mexico, Dr. José Manuel Carbonell, were elected vice chairmen; and Señor Ignacio de la Torre y Formento was named secretary general.

A Sentimental Journey in Peru

II. The Sierra

JULIA MACLEAN VIÑAS

Secretary to the Assistant Director, Pan American Union

ON OUR RETURN trip to Lima from Pucallpa, a river port on the Ucayali, we passed the night at Huánuco, the half-way station between the coast and the forest on the eastern slopes of the Andes.

The peasant chambermaid, clad in full

The first part of this article appeared in the BULLETIN for March 1940.

skirts and snug jacket, with plaits and dangling earrings setting off her brown face, greeted us with a cheery "Good morning." She brought us our breakfast on a tray, and then hastened to empty the chipped water jar into the china washbasin so that we might make our morning ablutions. The sun had already risen

from behind the hills, light was streaming in through the balcony shades, and the rustle of the stirring town rose from below. The roads coming from the eastern slopes of the Andes, the coast, and the sierra all meet at the Huánuco plaza, which never knows a moment's peace.

We should have started for Cerro de Pasco long before the sun was high above the yellow earth, but we did not hurry because we were eager to decipher the mystery of the mansion across the way, standing mute and peaceful, the only signs of life the cooing of pigeons in the eaves and the half-open garret door. The Packard's horn sounded for the second time, a sign that our friends were waiting; we were forced to go, and that white façade will remain forever an enigma to us.

We left Huánuco and soon began inhaling the aroma which proclaims from afar the cinchona tree, whose medicinal properties have saved millions of lives. The road was shaded by willows, Peruvian cherries, and flowering white elders.

We were now climbing towards the heights of the sierra, famous since Incan times. Along the cordillera's narrow roads we were following almost step by step the paths traversed by men who traveled these ways before the Spaniards. Once again we should have to surmount the gigantic barrier of the Andes.

In the distance there suddenly appeared a picturesque procession, its measured movements in harmony with the untroubled calm about us. After winding through the Andine mazes it came nearer to us, and out of the cloud of dust there emerged, one by one, a number of llamas obediently following the leader, which was adorned by a bell attached to its long silky neck and tassels of red wool hanging from its straight, sensitive ears. The llamas sleepily surveyed us from afar, and blocked

our way because the automobile was trespassing on ground which by rights belonged to them.

The confusion provided us an opportunity to look at them closely, and one glance sufficed for us to realize that they were all as curious as we. They appeared to be inquiring whence we had come to disturb their peace with an automobile horn and vibrating motor. A little shepherdess spinning near by stopped her work and anxiously flitted among the herd, which was bearing sacks of potatoes and wheat to Huánuco. She too peered at us shyly, looking out from under the broad brim of her hat, bedecked with a bright yellow flower. The sheep dog barked angrily, and everything was in a state of confusion until finally the only one who could control the drove put in an appearance. He was the *llama michec*, a copper-faced youth, clad in dark poncho and sandals, his staff in hand. Annoyed at having been left behind, he uttered an incomprehensible phrase in Quechua. Only then did the haughty llamas obey and leap lightly to the side of the road, to let pass the machine that man considers one of his most remarkable inventions. We continued on our way, and the caravan of llamas departed in the other direction. They went as proudly as they had come; after painting a picture of unequaled grace on the landscape they disappeared downhill around the curves of the rain-thirsty road.

As time went on, each mile we covered seemed steeper, and the Packard's motor began to show signs of being thirsty as a result of its efforts. If it should break down the traveler would find no help in sight in that more perpendicular than horizontal area. There the Peruvian Indians live hidden away between the rocks, in miserable stone hovels with



MANUEL HUALLPAR, A TOWN COUNCILLOR OF PÍSACC

This drawing by Eben Comins, one of a magnificent series on North and South American Indians, shows a Peruvian Indian garbed as town councillor and holding his silver-mounted staff of office.



Copyright by William La Varre

A WOMAN OF THE PERUVIAN ANDES

The style of hat varies from village to village, but the snug jacket, full, bright-colored skirts, and the shawl, or *lliclla*, are universal among country women in the mountains.

thatched roofs, overhanging the precipices and constantly struggling against rain, hail and lightning. The cabins, all alike in lowly simplicity, are as sad-looking inside as out.

We stopped at one of them for water, and noticed that on the cobblestone floor there was a bed made of a pair of sheepskins and a coarse blanket of llama wool. In one corner lay little piles of fuel and bundles of firewood. There were also a few gourds and earthenware pots, the kitchen utensils which the Indian uses to prepare his food: porridge or corn mush mixed with *charqui*, strips of beef salted and dried in the sun. The porridge made from dried corn is called *chuchoca* and that from *chuño* (frozen potatoes) *cocopa*. With this is invariably mixed *charqui*, *cancha* (roasted corn), or *mote* (stewed corn). *Chuño* is made of small potatoes which, after a process of freezing and thawing, are dried in the sun. Roasted and ground barley and bran also serve as a foundation for porridge.

Three fat-cheeked little Indians with jet-black beady eyes were squatting on the cobblestones of the miserable hut, playing with fleece. The Indian child knows no toys. When he is small he lives outdoors with the domestic animals, and as soon as he is large enough he helps his parents by tending the flocks. The Indians are reluctant to send their children to school, in order not to lose their indispensable aid in daily tasks. We asked the mother, who was preparing the family repast, for water; and she replied in Quechua: "*Manan kan-chu*" (there is none); then we inquired where the nearest spring might be and she impatiently answered, "*Chayllallapi tatay*" (just over there, brother); but when we insisted that she give us more definite information as to the location, she babbled, with a shake of the head: "*Manan man-chanichu*" (I don't understand).

Then there appeared from the back of the hut the shepherd, a melancholy figure, who had picked up some Spanish in the course of his wanderings; and he tried to tell us where the nearest stream was to be found, politely begging our pardon for not sharing with us what little water they had, because it was necessary for the preparation of their food. He insisted that the stream was "*aquicito*" (very near by), giving us both, with his wise irony and disregard for time and distance, a profound lesson in philosophy. We went on and finally found water, far away from the hut. We then continued climbing the mountain, no longer seeing willows or quinoa fields, for even barley had been left far below.

The scenery became more and more gloomy, the vegetation scanty. There were no more trees or large bushes, but a few flowers broke the monotony with their brilliant colors. There were also thorny plants, and between the rocks there appeared various strange grasslike growths.

It is surprising that in this hostile locale between forbidding mountains there are to be found small villages on hills separated from each other by great distances and with no means of communication with the rest of the country. Here man must fight desperately for his bread. In Incan times when the great lords set out to inspect their lands they stopped every two leagues at shelters especially built to lodge them. These inns were always well stocked in case of war or the armies would have perished from hunger in that western region of the empire called *Cuntisuyu*, land of fascinating variety but of formidable obstacles.

Cerro de Pasco

It has been three centuries since the dark hand of the Indian Huaricapcha, a shep-

herd from the town of Paria, pointed out the pathway that was to bring fame to this section of Peru, which is one of the highest parts of the majestic and imposing setting created by the Andes. Since 1630 the fame of Cerro de Pasco has been spreading all over the world, giving real meaning to the old Castilian saying, "It is worth a Peru," which in olden times was applied to anything fabulously valuable.

The legend runs that one day, just as it was growing dark, a tempestuous storm caught Huaricapcha on the inhospitable and bleak tableland with no other companion than his flock of sheep. Relentlessly pursued by rain, wind, and cold, he was forced to camp in a cave in the neighborhood of Cerro Yauricocha. He lit a fire with some dry grass that was in the cave, and there he spent the night. When dawn came and he was about to undertake the return trip, he was amazed to discover that on the rock there had appeared some silver globules among the last coals and cinders of the still smoking fire.

When he returned to town he told a friend about his discovery, and soon the news passed around the villages until at last it reached the ears of those adventurers who strive to extract the earth's riches. Then on the sides of the peak, in almost inaccessible locations, there began to spring up, without any rule or order, human dwellings; and a few years later Spanish galleons sailed from Callao with riches extracted from the ore of Cerro de Pasco and transported to the coast by llamas and mules. This was not, however, the first time mines were worked in Peru, because the Incas had previously discovered silver in different parts of the same region.

The founding of the city is attributed to Viceroy Don Manuel Amat y Junient, in 1771, and the title of "Opulent City of Cerro de Pasco" was officially granted it

by Marshal Agustín Gamarra, Provisional President of the Republic, January 10, 1840. In winter there is a great deal of snow. Summer begins in November and lasts until April; during that time it rains every afternoon, but the sun shines the rest of the day.

Cerro de Pasco, which was for many years the capital of the Department of Junín, is located 15,600 feet above sea level where the eastern and western cordilleras meet. It occupies a ravine north of the historic Plateau of Junín.

A city of irregular plan, its steep, narrow streets protect the inhabitants from the severe cold and wind. Along its sidewalks passes a motley crowd in which Indians, dressed in the mountain manner, predominate. The men wear breeches to the calf, a coarse blouse, poncho, sandals, and a rough felt hat. The women are dressed in a tight, colorful jacket, and full, bright-colored petticoat under the *anaco*, a dark overskirt; and; their braids, long earrings, and straw or cloth hat frame their faces, bronzed and chapped by the cold. They cover their shoulders with a square woolen shawl, known as a *lliclla*, which is folded diagonally and fastened by a *topo*, a gold, silver, or copper spoon-shaped pin of fine workmanship which ends in a point and can therefore be used as a defensive weapon. The Indian women carry their babies on their backs in shawls called *pullucatas*.

The foreign colony in Cerro de Pasco is as interesting as the native. Here, 3,000 miles from the United States, there has grown up an American industrial center, where American employees mingle with Germans, Austrians, Canadians, Danes, Australians, Irish, and English; they are the *gringos* of the everyday language that classes all foreigners together in order to distinguish them from Peruvians. Some 25,000 people live hereabouts. The gaily



Courtesy of Julia MacLean

THE SMELTER AT OROYA

The Cerro de Pasco Corporation smelter at Oroya produces copper, gold, silver, lead, zinc and bismuth from the rich deposits of the Department of Junín

painted dwellings of Cerro de Pasco are of adobe and stone with pitched roofs of corrugated iron or tile, which extend a little over the narrow sidewalks in order to discharge the torrential summer rains into the street gutters.

Arriving at Cerro de Pasco one is struck by the American influence. The hotel and the hospital offer every kind of modern convenience; and in the club library one may read periodicals of every type from *The New York Times* to *The Inca Chronicle*, a monthly publication of the foreign colony, and the various Spanish weeklies issued in the Department of Junín. The houses of the officials of the Cerro de Pasco Copper Corporation and the residence for bachelors attract attention because of the gerani-

um-filled flowerpots on the window sills, beyond some of which can be seen colored cages and canaries calmly swinging, untroubled by *soroche* (mountain sickness).

In Cerro de Pasco the view is not cheered by vegetation because the ground is almost bare of green. Only the outlying sections, known as *pampas*, are covered with short grass. After cutting this the native makes it into blocks, which he puts out to dry for later use as fuel, called *champha*.

The railroad and highways link the "Opulent City of Cerro de Pasco" with the different towns of the province of that name, Huancayo (the present capital of Junín), and the other main cities, as well as with the Departments of Lima and Huánuco. The sierra is the center from

which radiate lines of communication uniting the coast, the Andean region, and the *montaña*, or forested eastern slopes of the Peruvian Andes.

Wealth of the Department of Junín

The Department of Junín is perhaps the most famous in Peru because of its wealth in minerals, sheep, and alpacas. It might be said that of the many deposits hidden under Peruvian soil the choicest and most valuable are grouped in this central region, of ancient renown. During the colonial period Cerro de Pasco silver vied with that from Potosí and Guanajuato, but it was only about the middle of last century that the national mining industry really began to progress. Since then Peruvians as well as foreigners have devoted themselves to the arduous task of extracting the earth's treasures in a methodical and scientific manner, beginning work in the mines on a large scale, which required not only many privations but also enormous capital. As time has gone on difficulties have been conquered, and at present this region is one of Peru's greatest sources of wealth.

All the subsoil in the town of Cerro de Pasco is burrowed by the excavations that have been made over a period of centuries in order to extract the minerals, and even on the surface one can see many cuts. Piles of ore and coal are scattered about, giving the city and its surroundings a peculiar physiognomy. The Indians dig on their own lands with picks and primitive tools, and raise the ore from the caves in hide sacks carried on their shoulders. When one sees them appear at the mouth of a mine, bent under the weight of a sack, one imagines that they are gnomes in some fairy tale trying to escape from the earth's bowels, but condemned first to earn their bread through toil and sweat.

The most valuable mines belong to the Cerro de Pasco Copper Corporation and

are located in Cerro de Pasco, Morococha, Casapalca, and San Cristóbal, where the company maintains a competent staff of metallurgists and engineers. Copper, silver, lead, gold, zinc, and bismuth are refined at the Oroya smelter, before they are exported to the world markets, where Peru stands first in vanadium.

The most important vanadium mine in the world is located in Minasragra along the line dividing the Departments of Junín and Lima, among the high snowy peaks surrounding Punrun Lake. Some Indian shepherds (our Peruvian prospectors), who were searching eagerly for coal deposits on the property of Don Eulogio Fernandini discovered this famous mine. In their samples the manager of the Fernandini mining enterprise, Don Antenor Rizo Patrón, found a new mineral, vanadium sulphide, named patronite in his honor. It is well known that vanadium has the property of giving additional strength to steel.

Being unaccustomed to the high altitude, we were forced to descend, proceeding some eight miles to "La Quinua," one of the ranches of Don Eulogio Fernandini. His son Elías received us most courteously in spite of the fact that he was in the midst of overseeing the branding of a flock of sheep. Before our eyes there stretched a picture of perfect mountain tones, the predominating colors being the hazel of the fleece, the yellow of the *ichu* flowers, the slate gray of the distance, and the magnificent blue of the sky, where clouds floated gracefully.

Upon seeing the *patrón* and the major-domo the shepherds began counting the grazing flock which moved restlessly from side to side. "Meeee . . . meee . . . meee . . . !" bleated the frolicsome lambs; "Mee . . . mee . . . !" cried the rams, which were butting each other. One of

the sheep tried to jump the fence, but a shepherd caught and returned it to the fold. When we were later in the dining room we could still hear the intermittent bleating. Luncheon consisted of Indian *chilcano* or *yako chupe* (a soup which the natives believe very fortifying), made with potatoes, milk, cheese, eggs, ground yellow chile, and mint, as *pièce de resistance*; *humitas* (dough of green corn mixed with pieces of egg and meat, cooked wrapped in corn husks), and tenderloin steak with rice.

In spite of the great mining activity in the sierra the majority of its inhabitants are engaged in agriculture and the pasturing of cattle and sheep. The climate is excellent for cattle raising because the

cold and the altitude inhibit the spread of epidemics and also make for pastures of good quality. The rich ranchers of this region need extensive areas to feed their stock, since the water supply does not yet allow the concentration of abundant pastures. It is therefore necessary, when the fields in one region are exhausted, to lead the animals to others. This system of *rodeos*, or rotation, has caused the formation of many large estates in the Peruvian sierra. Proceeding along the road one constantly glimpses groups of shepherds grazing flocks in fields sprinkled with wild flowers, among which the purple alfalfa predominates. The ground seems covered with a golden rug made of the *ichu* and the grass that grows abundantly during the rainy season. Humble workers till the soil in the fields with the same primitive tools as their ancestors used, and like them painstakingly cultivate their crops on the mountainsides, terraced in toilsome efforts to gain a living from the earth. These Indians, familiar with their surroundings, seldom lift their eyes to the landscape that is so impressive to the traveler.

On the way to Tarma we stopped at the main house of the "Colquijirca" mine, property of our Peruvian Croesus Don Eulogio Fernandini, which has been active since Inca times. We were most hospitably received and regaled with warming drinks against the cold, but since the mistress of the house, an old school friend, was not at home, we soon continued on our way.

The Junín Plateau

The cold was penetrating. As the automobile advanced over the rough ground the Andine heights and ramparts receded into the distance, as though they wanted to make us feel the intimidating vastness of this isolated plateau. In spite of the skill of Andrés, who had taken the wheel



Courtesy of Julia MacLean

MONUMENT TO THE BATTLE OF JUNÍN

from the chauffeur, the Packard gave the impression of a turtle crawling in the mud, for the road was obscured by a light fall of snow. What an adventure it would be to have to endure a storm on this open plain, where there are not even austere mountains to offer a shelter among the rocks!

On all sides our eyes searched for some other traveler, a llama's haughty head, or the flight of a condor, but in vain. We were the only actors on that huge stage whose background was made of mountain peaks, standing out in fantastic colors under a nacreous sky or growing darker with the first shadows of night. In the distance, one would have said the setting sun had left one of its rays in the calm waters of Lake Junín, whose golden surface reflected a superb picture. Such was the landscape's majesty that it placed us in perfect communion with the Creator's work.

Suddenly we noticed that there was a passenger train zigzagging over the lonely plain, looking like a toy in which neither engineer or passengers can be seen. The engine panted along the rails, which shone like bands of silver on a white field; and along with the tooting of the whistle and the dense crest of smoke, there came over the plain to us the sensation of those invisible travelers who were also enjoying the sunset in that magical scene.

From the automobile window we could follow step by step the triumphant journey of the stars. All was quiet around us. We also were silent, as though the spirit of the Liberator's army had silenced our voices so that we should meditate on the glorious event which took place here, near the Lake of Junín, on August 6, 1824. As the traveler crosses the plateau in the dark-

ness of night, his imagination creates apparitions of men on horseback, led by Simón Bolívar and the Argentine general, Mariano Necochea, fighting bravely for continental liberty against General Canterac's royalist forces. One imagines the noise of sabers and lances, the stamping of the horses ridden by the Hussars of Peru who, led by Commander Suárez, at the decisive moment put the royalist troops to flight.¹ Even the wind seemed to whisper the famous words of the Liberator's cry: ". . . Soldiers, Peru and America expect from you peace, daughter of victory, and liberal Europe regards you spellbound, for the liberty of the New World is the hope of the Universe! Soldiers! Will you disappoint this hope? No, no, no, you are invincible!"

Today there rises on the solitary plain a granite column commemorating the epic deed and serving as a beacon for present and future generations. It was erected during the administration of Don Augusto B. Leguía, at the time of the celebration of the centennial of the Battle of Junín. Bolívar's triumph was gloriously climaxed at Ayacucho December 8, 1824, when Marshal Sucre sealed Peru's independence with his sword.

Wrapped in the deep peace of the night, we said farewell, perhaps forever, to this piece of Peruvian soil which was the stage for heroic deeds during the struggle for the independence of the American nations. We were in hearty agreement with the friend who had written us: ". . . It is the good fortune of a lifetime to traverse those regions consecrated forever by the Liberator's presence."

¹ *This fearlessness Bolívar rewarded by giving them the name of "Junín Hussars" immediately after the battle.*

The Pan American Union and Comparative Law Studies in the Americas

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THE COMPARATIVE STUDY of law has been looked upon in the Americas from an early date as the best means of bringing about a better mutual understanding of the legal systems in the Continent, and as the best method of overcoming regionalism and individualistic concepts in the enactment of national legislation. It aims to break down juridical isolation and to strengthen thereby the unity of the American nations.

Because of the value and usefulness of comparative law studies, they are constantly receiving greater support not only from official sources but also from private organizations and individuals. During the last few years, especially, various groups and individuals have taken an active part in furthering the objectives of this movement, and a number of institutes of comparative law have been established, either as autonomous organizations or as special branches in the Faculties of Law of American universities. Concurrently, many efforts of an official character have been made to stimulate and coordinate these activities. There has also been a great deal of interest in the establishment of an inter-American institute of comparative law, a project which may materialize in the not distant future.

In this movement the Pan American Union has played an important role. As the official agency of the American republics and as the organ of the International Conferences of American States

(commonly called Pan American Conferences), it has endeavored to stimulate and unify the various continental activities directed toward the promotion of this type of studies because of the realization that they are of paramount importance in carrying out more effectively the progressive work of codification of international law, and particularly the unification and uniformity of civil and commercial law in the Americas.

Although much remains to be done before the maximum benefit can be obtained from this preliminary type of work, there is no doubt that a great deal has already been accomplished in this field, both through the steps taken by the Pan American Conferences and at the initiative of the Pan American Union. And in this connection, it should be added that a good deal of credit is due to the active collaboration of private organizations and individuals who have always shown a cooperative spirit and unselfish interest in lending their assistance. Some of the draft projects that eventually became international agreements were prepared by these groups in the interim between conferences.

That these efforts have not been in vain is evident from the results accomplished to date in the codification of public and private international law, and in the unification and uniformity of civil and commercial law in the Americas. In both these movements, particularly the latter, the utilization of comparative law studies has

been in many cases a contributing factor to the success that they have attained.

In the following pages the progressive development of these two more or less coordinated movements is briefly sketched. This outline will serve to describe what the Americas have done to improve their legal relations and to give a general idea of present developments and trends.

Codification of international law

The codification of international law in the Western Hemisphere has been one of the most important topics in practically all inter-American gatherings since the Congress of Panama, called by Simón Bolívar, in 1826. The idea of codification in the Americas has been cherished ever since that important meeting. The idea itself, however, may be traced even further back in Bolívar's life. In a letter which he wrote in 1815, the Liberator conceived of an America composed of "independent nations all bound by one common law which should fix their foreign relations" and glimpsed the day when "the relations of political societies would receive a code of public law as a rule of universal conduct."

The first effective efforts, however, to organize the work of codification of international law were made at the Second International Conference of American States held at Mexico City in 1901-2. At this Conference a convention was signed which provided for the appointment of a commission of jurists charged with the task of preparing codes of public and private international law. Although this entity was not established because a sufficient number of states did not ratify the convention, the effort did not end there, but was continued with increasing interest at the Third International Conference of American States, where a convention was concluded providing for the crea-

tion of an international commission of American jurists.

The International Commission of American Jurists, whose name was changed to International Conference of American Jurists by the Eighth International Conference of American States (Lima, 1938), met for the first time at Rio de Janeiro in 1912 and later in the same city in 1927. The results accomplished by this organization, the first official body which successfully endeavored to codify the two branches of international law, have been of outstanding value in the marked progress which has been made during the last 30 years in the work of codification. In its task the Commission was greatly assisted by the American Institute of International Law, an unofficial organization created in 1916, whose aid was enlisted at the request of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union.

The Fifth Conference (Santiago, 1923) reorganized the International Commission of American Jurists, and recommended the appointment of a committee for the study of the comparative civil law of all the nations of America "in order to contribute to the formation of Private International Law." This Conference likewise declared that "in the domain of International Law, codification should be gradual and progressive," a principle which was reiterated by the Seventh Conference at Montevideo (1933), the latter adding that it would be a "vague illusion to think for a long time of the possibility of carrying it out completely."

As a result of the work accomplished by the International Commission of Jurists, with the effective collaboration of the American Institute of International Law, a series of projects of conventions on various topics of international law was drafted. These became the basis of several important conventions and treaties signed at the Sixth International Conference of

American States held at Habana in 1928. One of these instruments is the Convention on Private International Law (Bustamante Code).

The conventions and treaties concluded at the Habana Conference constitute, in the opinion of commentators on the subject, the highwater mark of the codification work in the Americas. They demonstrate the fruitful results that can be obtained from thorough preparatory work by technical agencies and from the cooperation of private and official entities in this field of endeavor.

In addition to the conventions and treaties concluded at that meeting, the Sixth Conference adopted a resolution on the methods of codification to be followed in the future, and provided, among other things, for the continuance of the International Commission of Jurists and the appointment of three permanent committees, one in Rio de Janeiro on Public International Law, another in Montevideo on Private International Law, and a third in Habana on Comparative Legislation and Uniformity of Legislation.

The Seventh International Conference of American States, the Inter-American Conference for the Maintenance of Peace (Buenos Aires, 1936), and the Eighth International Conference of American States, contributed also in a very material way to furthering the work of codification, each one adopting new and effective measures for the "gradual and progressive codification of international law." As a matter of fact, the procedure of codification in effect today is the product of resolutions on method adopted by these three last major inter-American conferences. The Seventh Conference provided for the establishment of a Commission of Experts on the Codification of International Law and for the appointment of national committees on codifica-

tion. The Buenos Aires Conference revised the procedures and reestablished the Permanent Committees created by the Sixth Conference. Later, the Lima Conference again revised the structure of and procedure for codification, placing special stress on the coordination of the work of the different entities.

The system devised by the three latter Conferences is the one under which the work is being carried on at the present time. The picture would not be complete, however, without mentioning here the name of another Pan American organization which has been rendering outstanding service to the American republics since its creation in 1939. I refer to the Inter-American Juridical Committee whose seat is at Rio de Janeiro. This Committee, created originally under the name of Inter-American Neutrality Committee, by the First Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics held at Panama in 1939, was requested by the Third Meeting at Rio de Janeiro, which changed its name and functions, to "develop and coordinate the work of codifying international law, without prejudice to the duties entrusted to other existing organizations." The Juridical Committee, therefore, must be included among the existing agencies for the codification of international law.

As a consequence of the action taken by these various Pan American gatherings there is today in America an adequate machinery for the codification of international law, and judging by the results thus far obtained we may well conclude that the Pan American effort in this field has before it a very promising future.

Unification and uniformity of law

The other field in which the Pan American movement has achieved notable success in the establishment of closer legal

relations between the American republics is that relative to the unification of private law and uniformity of legislation.

In the present article the aim will be merely to summarize very briefly some of the outstanding steps that have been taken in this direction. The interest of the American nations in this problem is not of recent origin. Attempts were made at securing uniformity of legislation as early as 1856. In that year a treaty was signed at Washington by the diplomatic representatives of Costa Rica, El Salvador, Guatemala, Mexico, Nueva Granada (Colombia), Peru, and Venezuela resident in that city, which envisaged the possibility of securing uniformity in maritime law and in the enforcement of judicial decrees in civil and criminal matters. Later, at the American Congress of Jurists, which met at Lima in 1877, the question of unification of private law received attention, although the conclusions of the Congress related primarily to the codification of private international law. Subsequently, at the First South American Congress on Private International Law, which met at Montevideo in 1888-1889, seven treaties, a convention and an additional protocol were signed relative to civil law, commercial law, criminal law, copyright, procedural law, trade-marks, patents and the practice of learned professions. The agreements were in response to the objectives enunciated in convoking the Congress, which were "to secure uniformity in matters of international private law by means of a treaty. The plenipotentiaries recognize the lack of uniformity of legislation which now exists between the different countries and are convinced of the importance of removing the obstacles which these differences offer; they feel that these divergencies will disappear the moment uniform legislation facilitates common civil relations between private individuals."

The treaties signed at this Congress represent one of the greatest contributions to the unification of private international law in America. In recognition of their importance, the First International Conference of American States held at Washington in 1889-90 recommended the adherence of all the American States to those agreements.

To commemorate the fiftieth anniversary of the Congress of 1888-1889, a Second South American Congress on Private International Law was held at Montevideo in 1939 and 1940. At the two meetings of the Congress new treaties were signed for the purpose of revising and amplifying the principles incorporated in the instruments adopted in 1889, on the following subjects: political asylum and refuge, copyright, practice of learned professions, procedural law, commercial navigation, civil law, criminal law, territorial commercial law, and an additional protocol.

The International Conferences of American States, particularly the more recent ones, have greatly accelerated the work of unification of private law and uniformity of legislation. The Fifth Conference recommended that a committee of experts be appointed for the study of the comparative civil law of the nations of America. The Sixth Conference reiterated this recommendation and the Seventh Conference adopted a resolution in which the American nations were invited "to undertake a comparative study of the civil code of Brazil and their respective civil codes, to the end that the next Pan American Conference may be prepared to entrust the results to a committee of jurists which may undertake the work of a uniform American Civil Code."

The various efforts made in all these inter-American meetings to organize an adequate procedure for the unification of

private law and uniformity of legislation were finally crowned with success at the Eighth International Conference of American States held at Lima in 1938. This Conference adopted a resolution which provides for the establishment of a permanent committee of jurists on the unification of the civil and commercial laws of America. This committee has already been organized in the Faculty of Law of the University of San Marcos in Lima and is at present engaged in carrying out the objectives set forth in that resolution. As expressly established in the resolution, the two great juridical systems of the continent, the Anglo-Saxon and the Latin, are represented on the Committee.

In the discharge of its functions, the Permanent Committee of Lima is to communicate directly with the faculties of law of the Latin American universities and with the universities or technical institutions that the Government of the United States may designate for this purpose.

Besides the action taken by the International Conferences of American States, a considerable number of diplomatic instruments or resolutions dealing with a wide range of problems of law, legislation, and international administration which have a direct bearing on the unification and uniformity of law have been concluded or adopted by special or technical Pan American conferences.

Throughout all these official attempts at unification of private law and uniformity of legislation, the Pan American Union itself has taken a very active role, either as a part of its regular duties or in carrying out duties assigned to it by resolutions or recommendations of the various Pan American Conferences which have studied the subject. To mention only two instances, in accordance with a recommendation of the Seventh International Conference of American States on simplification

and uniformity of powers of attorney and juridical personality of foreign companies, the Pan American Union drafted a declaration on the Juridical Personality of Foreign Companies and a Protocol on the Uniformity of Powers of Attorney. In the formulation of the Protocol the Union received the valuable collaboration of a subcommittee of the Section on Comparative and International Law of the American Bar Association. The declaration was opened to signature by the American States at the Pan American Union on June 25, 1936, and the Protocol on February 17, 1940.

Participation by private organizations in the work of codification and unification of the law in the Americas.

At this point a fitting tribute should be paid to the various technical organizations which have rendered valuable assistance to the Pan American Union and to the official agencies engaged in the work of codification and unification of law in the Americas. These services, though voluntarily given, were in every case rendered at the specific request of the Pan American Union or the Pan American Conferences. The latter have repeatedly solicited, particularly in the last fifteen years, the co-operation of private organizations and institutions in the work of codification and unification.

For instance, in 1928 the Sixth International Conference of American States in its resolution on future codification of international law provided that the three Permanent Committees which it created should "solicit and obtain from the National Societies of International Law scientific opinions and general views on the regulation and formulation of the juridical questions entrusted to the Committees." This same resolution also brought into the picture the American

Institute of International Law, by requesting the Pan American Union to submit the material and draft projects prepared by the Permanent Committees to the Institute's Executive Council "to the end that through a scientific consideration thereof the latter may make a technical study of such draft projects and present its findings and formulas in a report on the matter."

Five years later, the Seventh Conference approved another important resolution on this subject, in which it provided that the Commission of Experts on the Codification of International Law, as well as the separate national commissions of codification which were established therein "should take into account, insofar as it may be convenient, the suggestions and projects which other institutions may submit for their consideration."

At Lima, in 1938, the Eighth Conference reiterated the same idea, stating in its Resolution VII that "the participation of technical institutions of the different countries" was desirable in advancing the work of uniformity of commercial and civil law. The Conference requested the Law Faculty of the University of San Marcos in Lima, "the central and motivating organ of the work of unification" and the headquarters of the Permanent Committee of Jurists on the Unification of the Civil and Commercial Laws of America, created by the same resolution, "to communicate directly with the Faculties of Law of the Latin American universities and with the universities or technical institutions which the Government of the United States may designate for this purpose."

The same resolution also recommended "to the universities of the Americas the establishment in their Faculties of Law of chairs on comparative civil and commercial legislation, as an effective means

of disseminating reciprocal knowledge of the civil and commercial laws of each country, and of promoting their gradual approximation and uniformity."

In Resolution XVII on methods for the codification of international law, the Eighth Conference reiterated the request made by the Seventh Conference to the effect that "the National Committees as well as the Permanent Committees shall receive and study, to whatever extent they may judge expedient, the suggestions and drafts which private scientific institutions may submit for their consideration." In another resolution (No. XVIII) the same Conference further recommended to the Governments of the American Republics that in creating national committees on codification, they "take into consideration the suggestions of educational organizations or legal associations of the countries in which they are established."

*Recent interest in the furtherance of
comparative law studies*

As stated at the beginning of this article, there has been a marked interest in recent years in stimulating the promotion of comparative law studies on a continental basis. This new interest has arisen from the realization that greater progress could be made by employing this method more fully in the preparatory work of codification and particularly of unification and uniformity of law. In order to arrive at the formulation of unified principles of law it is indispensable to study first the various legal systems involved. Such a method permits the preparation of instruments which will be more acceptable to the various states and will receive more unanimous if not complete ratification.

In recognition of the real need for intensifying this movement several attempts have been made recently to further its objectives.

For instance, the Eighth American Scientific Congress held at Washington from May 10 to 21, 1940, adopted two resolutions. The first recommends that "organizations of an official and private character in the Americas which are interested in comparative law studies undertake investigations relative to the feasibility of obtaining some uniformity in criminal law matters among the countries of the American continent." The other resolution recommends that "consideration be given to the possibility and manner of accomplishing the complete translation into Spanish, Portuguese, and French of the work entitled 'Restatement of the Law of Conflict of Laws,' approved by the American Law Institute."

At this Scientific Congress an idea which had long been cherished in the minds of prominent individuals and had been sponsored by many well known groups, particularly by bar associations in the various American republics, was translated into reality. A distinguished group of lawyers, delegates to Section IX on International Law, Public Law and Jurisprudence, established an inter-American organization, which in its brief period of existence has given promise of practical accomplishment. This is the Inter-American Bar Association.

This organization seeks to establish and maintain relations between associations of lawyers, national and local, in the various countries of the Americas. One of its purposes, as stated in Article 1 of its constitution, is "to advance the science of jurisprudence in all its phases and particularly the study of comparative law; to promote uniformity of commercial legislation; and to further the diffusion of knowledge of the laws of the various countries throughout the Americas."

The Association held its first Conference at Habana, March 24-28, 1941. At that

meeting twenty-one resolutions and recommendations were adopted. Among these was a proposal to create in the city of Habana an Inter-American Academy of Comparative and International Law, whose purpose would be to promote and develop studies on those subjects. For the fulfillment of its purposes the Academy is to organize special courses on matters of comparative law and international law, particularly for the students of America, by professors of the different American countries. Although this recommendation has not yet been carried out, there is a possibility that it will be made effective in the near future. The Conference also approved a resolution recommending that the executive committee of the Association study the proposals made to the Conference relative to the creation of an American Institute of Comparative Constitutional Law, of a Pan American Institute of Comparative Law, and of an Inter-American Office for the Unification of Penal Legislation.

With the object of continuing the progress of its activities, the Association planned to hold a second conference in the city of Buenos Aires, September 21-26, 1942. Transportation problems created by the present conflict made it impossible, however, to carry out this plan. Instead a meeting of the Council was held in Washington in the latter part of November 1942; it was attended by prominent representatives of the Association throughout the Americas.

The Inter-American Bar Association, therefore, is playing a very important part in establishing closer personal relationships among the lawyers of America and in stimulating the study of comparative law, and is thus contributing very effectively to the greater juridical unity of the Continent.

Another example of the recent con-

tinental interest in the field of comparative law is the action taken by the Second American Conference of National Committees of Intellectual Cooperation, held at Habana in 1941. This Conference adopted a resolution on comparative law studies. In its preamble, the resolution sets forth the basic principles and postulates of comparative law work. It emphasizes that the work of unification can be advanced through effective collaboration on the part of private organizations, universities, professors of law, law students, and members of the legal profession generally. It brings out the fact that the collaboration of private interests during the initial period in the development of the work can be most fruitful in making available, through the completion of comparative law studies and translations of the basic legal materials of the Anglo-American and Latin American legal systems, the indispensable elements for projects of uniform law and legislation, and for the intensified and more widespread interchange between the systems. It is also pointed out that the vigorous prosecution of the work is retarded by great obstacles of a practical nature, by the lack of a personnel trained in the technique of comparative law scholarship, and by the existence of obstinate preconceptions which magnify the differences between the two juridical systems.

After these preliminary statements, and with the object of offering some means to overcome the difficulties involved, the Habana Resolution calls attention to the importance of advancing the work of legal unification approved by the Eighth International Conference of American States in order to strengthen the permanent bases of inter-American solidarity; recommends the active participation of individuals and groups in educational and professional legal circles in all the American Republics and the establishment in the law faculties

of universities of chairs on comparative civil and commercial law; and, finally, suggests the translation into the other languages of the American republics of the Restatement of the Private Law of the United States of America, formulated by the American Law Institute, and of representative civil and commercial codes of the Latin American republics, as a step of great practical significance in stimulating comparative law studies and in furnishing the basic primary materials for eventual projects of uniform law and legislation.

As a third and final example of the interest in the comparative law movement and its recent achievements, mention should also be made of the action taken at the initiative of the Pan American Union by the American Bar Association at its annual meeting held in Detroit from August 24 to 27, 1942. This action is particularly indicative of the work of an unofficial character that is being done in this field.

As a result of a proposal submitted by the Pan American Union to the President of the American Bar Association, with the desire to promote cooperative action in the field of jurisprudence among local bar associations in the United States, the Association adopted a resolution that reads as follows:

WHEREAS recent inter-American conferences as well as international business and professional gatherings have recommended efforts by qualified groups towards the simplification and unification of the civil and commercial laws of the American Republics; and

WHEREAS the Pan American Union has, for many years, encouraged and assisted in the comparative study of the juridical systems of the United States and of the Latin American countries and now offers its resources and experience in cooperation with bar association groups which may be organized to work for the ends above mentioned;

NOW, THEREFORE, BE IT RESOLVED by the House of Delegates of the American Bar Association that state and local bar associations throughout the

United States be urged to appoint special committees to undertake a study, by such means as may be available to them and in cooperation with the Inter-American Bar Association and the Pan American Union, of the important similarities and differences between the juridical system and the jurisprudence of the Latin American countries and that of the United States, towards the objective of gradual unification or coordination and simplification of the civil and commercial law among all of the American Republics.

The examples briefly enumerated in this section are by no means the only ones available. They are typical, however, of the efforts being made, both officially and unofficially, to promote the study of comparative law as the most effective method of arriving at a more unified continental juridical system and to assist in the establishment of a firmer basis for the unity of the nations of the Western Hemisphere.

Conclusion

The foregoing offers a very general picture of the importance of comparative law studies in the promotion of the work of codification, unification, and uniformity of law in the Americas; it summarizes the progressive development of this work, and describes the valuable contributions which have been made or are being made by

individuals and organizations to further its progress. The constructive results that can be derived from the active participation of individuals and groups in building closer juridical relations between the American nations cannot be overemphasized. And if the outstanding service of these entities in the past can be any criterion as to the effectiveness of their collaboration in the future, we can have no doubt that the results to be achieved will be most gratifying.

It is no exaggeration to state that the work done so far to improve and strengthen the juridical relations of the American republics stands out as one of the greatest accomplishments in the history of the whole Pan American movement.

The direct relationship of the Pan American Union to the various activities undertaken to advance the work of codification, unification, and uniformity of law has placed the Union in a very advantageous position to observe the steady development of the work and to appraise its potentialities. Although the field still has unlimited possibilities, the progress accomplished to date justifies the adoption of an optimistic view as to the future of the movement.



Retoños Criollos

MARGHERITA G. SARFATTI

HA muerto Don Manuel Güiraldes.

Con este noble anciano caballero muere una vez más el prestigioso joven hidalgo Ricardo Güiraldes, flor de la nobleza gauchesca y de las letras de habla castellana en tierra de ultramar, pues Ricardo no tenía hijos y su padre había sido la más cercana criatura de su sangre que le sobreviviera.

Fué Don Manuel hombre de hermosa prestancia y de amplia cultura, nacido de vieja aristocracia de estancieros. Intendente de Buenos Aires, tuvo muchas actividades de buen ciudadano y de hombre político, pero desde hace tiempo se había retirado a San Antonio de Areco, su estancia de familia, vieja por la tradición y nueva por la organización científica y moderna que él supo darle. Hay otras estancias, en las dos orillas del Plata, que merecen la celebridad por lo extenso, o lo bonito, o lo técnicamente adelantado. San Antonio de Areco se destaca sobre todas por su consagración literaria. No se puede compararla si no es a la estancia de los Veinte Ombúes, donde un niño rubio y ensimismado medía, hace cincuenta años, los ilimitados campos con el galope de su petiso y el infinito horizonte con el vuelo de los pájaros. Pero, esta estancia de los ombúes, donde una familia inglesa pasó unos pocos años,

casi ha desaparecido, y vive sólo en las páginas del criollo inglés, Guillermo Hudson, con su añoranza de lejanía.

En realidad, el país de su nostalgia no se encuentra tanto en Suramérica sino en la niñez: es el país encantado, bajo cualquiera latitud, donde todos soñamos volver, pues allá teníamos seguridad de la existencia de Dios y del cariño de nuestra madre, de nuestro prójimo bueno y de nuestro bello porvenir.

Al contrario, San Antonio de Areco es una estancia bien definida, raíz de tierra donde brotó *Don Segundo Sombra* y donde el tipo histórico del gaucho se despidió de la realidad para vivir sin más crepúsculo en el mundo de la fantasía. Su creador y padre, Ricardo Güiraldes, falleció joven, hace ya tiempo, y ahora muere, cargado de años y de obras, el abuelo de Don Segundo, el hermoso Don Manuel.

La primera vez que yo vine acá, hace diez años, su persona fué para mí la explicación y la personificación viviente de todo lo criollo.

En sus amplios ojos sonrientes yo iba buscando los reflejos de la amplitud de la pampa y de la sonrisa penetrante de su hijo; en su caballeresca cortesía, la tradición gentil de su mundo de primitivos y refinados hidalgos del campo, de los potros y del ganado: mundo que tenía para mí sabor a poema y leyenda.

De El Diario, Montevideo, 27 de noviembre de 1941.

The Americas and the War

TO KEEP the readers of the BULLETIN informed of the various measures taken by the American Republics since the United States was attacked by Japan on December 7, 1941, a continuing list will be compiled of the laws, decrees, acts, orders, and resolutions dealing with the war and its effects and published in official gazettes or noted in other publications received at the Pan American Union. While it is attempted to make each monthly installment of the compilation as complete as possible, it is inevitable that some measures should be omitted, because of uncertain mails, the delay in receiving recent issues of official papers, and other difficulties.

When a reference stands by itself in parenthesis, it is the official source for an item for which an unofficial source was previously given. In order to preserve the numbering of the measures mentioned in the preceding issues, items listed in this number whose dates fall between those of

measures already published are inserted with letters following the number (*e.g.*, 2a).

The official gazettes of the Latin American countries are as follows: Argentina, *Boletín Oficial*; Brazil, *Diário Oficial*; Chile, *Diario Oficial*; Colombia, *Diario Oficial*; Costa Rica, *Gaceta Oficial*; Cuba, *Gaceta Oficial*; Dominican Republic, *Gaceta Oficial*; El Salvador, *Diario Oficial*; Ecuador, *Registro Oficial*; Guatemala, *Diario de Centro América*; Haiti, *Le Moniteur*; Honduras, *La Gaceta*; Mexico, *Diario Oficial*; Nicaragua, *La Gaceta*; Panama, *Gaceta Oficial*; Paraguay, *Gaceta Oficial*; Peru, *El Peruano*; Uruguay, *Diario Oficial*; and Venezuela, *Gaceta Oficial*.

The list was begun in the April 1942 number of the BULLETIN, and omissions will be supplied as information is received from official or other sources. Cooperation to this end will be appreciated. When notice of a measure has been taken from an unofficial account, the official source will be given as soon as it is available.

PART IX

ARGENTINA

11b_o. March 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 116,000.-451, instructing the Ministries of the Treasury and Agriculture to issue the resolutions necessary for establishment of export quotas and regulation of the use of articles essential to national consumption and industry. (*Boletín Oficial*, April 13, 1942.)

12a. March 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 116,073.-1044, postponing until July 1, 1942 the discharge of soldiers of the 1921 class. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 13, 1942.)

13a. April 14, 1942. Treasury Resolution suspending for the duration of the war the Resolution of June 18, 1940 (requiring that sheets of wood pulp imported for paper manufacture be perforated), since the requirement greatly inconveniences the United States, now Argentina's sole source of supply. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 17, 1942.)

14c. April 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 117,902, authorizing overtime employment of personnel by firms manufacturing glass, paper, and pasteboard. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 3, 1942.)

17b. May 2, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 118,914, fixing the sales price for burlap bags. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 6, 1942.)

17c. May 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 119,215, suspending the state of siege in the Province of Buenos Aires and the National Territory of La Pampa on May 10, 1942, because of municipal elections. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 3, 1942.)

19a₁. June 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 121,742.-433, fixing maximum sales prices for fuel, Diesel, and gas oils. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 18, 1942.)

19b. Presidential Decree No. 121,840. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 25, 1942.)

19b₁. June 5, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 121,842, instructing the Ministry of Agriculture

to take the necessary steps to insure the return of burlap bags to all industries packing their products therein. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 25, 1942.)

19b₂. June 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 121,677, allowing greater tolerance for jute-burlap potato sacks until December 31, 1942. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 25, 1942.)

19b₃. June 6, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 121,681, temporarily suspending Decree No. 125,431 of February 14, 1938 (requiring flour to be packed in new sacks). (*Boletín Oficial*, June 25, 1942.)

19b₄. June 9, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 121,990 providing that charcoal need not be shipped in bags because of their scarcity. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 26, 1942.)

19c. Presidential Decree No. 122,330. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 26, 1942.)

19c₁. June 11, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 122,556.-126, creating the Office of Information for Foreign Countries (*Dirección de Información al Exterior*) in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 11, 1942.)

19c₂. June 13, 1942. Treasury Resolution No. 217, regulating the use of formaldehyde. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 15, 1942.)

19d. Presidential Decree No. 122,716. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 6, 1942.)

19e. June 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 122,713, empowering the Central Bank to require whatever information is deemed necessary to ascertain the nature and purpose of any transfer or movement of funds or securities, in order to safeguard national and continental interests. (*Boletín Oficial*, June 22, 1942.)

19f. June 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 122,714.-934, extending to transactions with all non-American countries the provisions of Decree No. 66,230 of July 26, 1940 (providing for government control over the transfer and movement of funds or securities involving certain countries). (*Boletín Oficial*, June 22, 1942.)

19g. June 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 122,882.-1066.-445, extending the provisions of Decree No. 67,355 of July 13, 1940 (providing for control over Argentine securities brought into the country) to securities of any kind brought into the country. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 10, 1942.)

19h. June 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 122,821, fixing import and export quotas for crude petroleum and fluid hydrocarbons for the period ending September 30, 1942. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 7, 1942.)

19i. June 18, 1942. Treasury Resolution placing United States currency under the control provided for by Decrees Nos. 67,355 of July 13, 1940, and 122,882.-1066.-445 of June 17, 1942 (see 19d₃ above). (*Boletín Oficial*, July 10, 1942.)

20a. (Correction) June 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 123,157. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 6, 1942.)

20a₁. June 23, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 123,160, taking over for the national reserve 20 percent of the rubber stocked by industrialists as of March 31, 1942. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 6, 1942.)

20a₂. June 23, 1942. Treasury and Agriculture Resolution No. 232 regulating the use of methanol. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 15, 1942.)

20a₃. June 24, 1942. Presidential Decree, creating the National Olive-growing Corporation (*Corporación Nacional de Olivicultura*) to stimulate the cultivation of olives. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 19, 1942.)

20a₄. June 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 123,536, providing that empty new or used textile containers be acquired only through the Ministry of Agriculture. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 6, 1942.)

20a₅. June 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 123,675, further regulating Decree No. 120,931 of May 27, 1942, referring to iron stocks. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 6, 1942.)

20a₆. June 30, 1942. Resolution No. 31,319, Ministry of Agriculture, designating the type of burlap bag to be used for packing rice and cereals. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 4, 1942.)

20a₇. June 30, 1942. Resolution No. 31,320, Ministry of Agriculture, prohibiting the exportation of oil cake in bags. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 4, 1942.)

20a₈. June 30, 1942. Resolution No. 31,322, Ministry of Agriculture, prohibiting the use of inside bags in packing quebracho extract. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 4, 1942.)

20c. July 7, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 124,-363.-157, extending the prohibitions of Decree No. 65,006 of June 13, 1940 (prohibiting the sending of Argentine merchant vessels to Danish ports) to ports on the east coast of Canada and the United States. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 14, 1942.)

20d. July 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 124,582.-478, requiring every motor vehicle, as a gasoline conservation measure, to be equipped with a power and speed regulator. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 14, 1942.)

20e. July 11, 1942. Circular, Central Bank, setting forth rules and regulations regarding the transfer and control of non-American securities (see 19f above). (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, July 12, 1942.)

20f. July 13, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 124,612, authorizing overtime employment of personnel in plants engaged in the metallurgical industry. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 17, 1942.)

20g. July 15, 1942. Resolution No. 921, Ministry of War, exempting automobiles belonging to the State from carrying the required power and speed regulators (see 20d above). (*Boletín Oficial*, July 25, 1942.)

20h. July 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 125,052, fixing the sales price for kerosene. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 23, 1942.)

20i. July 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 125,159, prohibiting the exportation of sugar. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 23, 1942.)

20j. July 20, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 125,132.-477, providing for the rationing of iron. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 24, 1942.)

20k. July 21, 1942. Presidential Decree exempting grease and tallow of marine origin from the provisions of the Decree of May 27, 1942, requiring a prior permit for the exportation of animal grease and tallow (see Argentina 19a, BULLETIN, November, 1942). (*Boletín Oficial*, August 11, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, October 3, 1942.)

20l. July 21, 1942. Presidential Decree authorizing the exportation of wheat flour only if packed in used cotton or jute bags that have been cleaned and disinfected. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 11, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, October 3, 1942.)

20m. July 22, 1942. Presidential Decree prohibiting the exportation of fuels except to supply boats. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 28, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 26, 1942.)

20n. July 22, 1942. Presidential Decree creating in the Ministry of Agriculture a Fuel Distribution and Rationing Office. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, July 24, 1942.)

20o. July 22, 1942. Presidential Decree placing the supervision of fuel stocks under the Ministry of Agriculture. (*La Prensa*, Buenos Aires, July 24, 1942.)

20p. July 23, 1942. Presidential Decree providing that alcohol and molasses be subject to export control in order to prevent an alcohol

shortage. (*Boletín Oficial*, July 28, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 26, 1942.)

20q. July 25, 1942. Resolution providing that salt may be exported in used jute or burlap bags, the latter to be returned to Argentina by the consignee. (*Boletín Oficial*, August 11, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, October 3, 1942.)

22. August 28, 1942. Resolution, Central Bank, providing that previous authorization must be obtained for all transactions in United States currency. *(*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 19, 1942.)

BOLIVIA

6a. June 29, 1942. Executive Decree restricting the circulation of United States currency. (*El Diario*, La Paz, July 4, 1942.)

6b. June 30, 1942. Executive Decree prohibiting the purchase or sale of foreign drafts or funds by persons and entities resident in Bolivia, with the exception of the Central Bank of Bolivia and the Commercial Banks. (*El Diario*, La Paz, July 4, 1942.)

6c. July 22, 1942. Executive Decree revoking Article 2 of the Decree of June 29, 1942 (see 6a above) and prohibiting the sale of United States currency in Bolivia. (*El Diario*, La Paz, July 30, 1942.)

6d. August 4, 1942. Executive Decree restricting radio and cable communications with Axis nations. (*El Diario*, La Paz, August 19, 1942.)

BRAZIL

34a. July 22, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4500, placing under government administration the properties of the Italian Cable Company (Compagnia Italiana dei Cavi Telegrafici Sottomarini). (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 12, 1942.)

35b₁. August 15, 1942. Decree-Law No. 4588, suspending for 90 days the import duties on portland or roman cement. (*Diário Oficial*, August 18, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 26, 1942.)

35e₁. August 21, 1942. Decree authorizing the Federal Purchasing Department to requisition any materials required for public utility service, giving just compensation therefor, for the duration of the present emergency. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 26, 1942.)

40a. August 27, 1942. Decree-Law prescribing regulations to facilitate bulk importation of crude

petroleum; gasoline; kerosene; Diesel, gas, signal, and fuel oil; and other simple, compound, and emulsified lubricants. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, October 3, 1942.)

41a. August 1942. Decree-Law establishing a national agricultural colony in the State of Maranhão, with an area of 300,000 hectares (741,313 acres). (*Boletim No. 37*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda, Rio de Janeiro, September 1942.)

41b. August 1942. Decree-Law authorizing the Central Railway of Brazil to explore the peat bogs located in the region of the São Paulo branch, without waiting to comply with regulatory formalities. (*Boletim No. 37*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda, Rio de Janeiro, September 1942.)

41c. September 2, 1942. Decree-Law prescribing bases for the organization of pre-military instruction, which is made obligatory for boys between the ages of 12 and 16 years who are students in secondary schools. (*Boletim No. 39*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda, Rio de Janeiro, September 23, 1942.)

41d. September 1942. Decree-Law requisitioning for government use various oil drilling equipment imported by the Copeba Petroleum Company. (*Boletim No. 39*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda, Rio de Janeiro, September 23, 1942.)

41e. September 1942. Decree-Law placing the Hoepecke Navigation Company under authority of the Federal Administration. (*Boletim No. 39*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda, Rio de Janeiro, September 23, 1942.)

41f. September 1942. Decree-Law dividing the coast and navigable rivers of the country into six naval command areas, with headquarters at Belém, Recife, São Salvador, Rio de Janeiro, Florianópolis, and Ladário. (*Boletim No. 39*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda, Rio de Janeiro, September 23, 1942.)

41g. September 1942. Decree-Law establishing the Brazilian Technical Commission to work in cooperation with the American Technical Mission sent to Rio de Janeiro. (See Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 45, BULLETIN, November 1942.) (*Boletim No. 39*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda, Rio de Janeiro, September 23, 1942.)

41h. September 4, 1942. Announcement by the President of the Brazilian Red Cross of the establishment of a nurses' parachute corps. (*New York Times*, September 5, 1942.)

41i. September 1942. Decree placing under government administration the entire holdings of the Lage organization (coastwise shipping, shipyards, coal mines, construction companies, etc.). (*News Bulletin*, American Brazilian Association, New York, September 21, 1942.)

41j. September 1942. Resolutions establishing control over the metals business and prohibiting the movement within the country of any kind of metals without proper authorization. (*News Bulletin*, American Brazilian Association, New York, September 21, 1942.)

43. September 29, 1942. Decree-Law proclaiming an eight-day bank holiday throughout Brazil. (*Christian Science Monitor*, October 1, 1942.)

44. October 5, 1942. Authorization for the issuance of war bonds to the amount of 3,000,000 contos (approximately \$150,000,000). (*New York Times*, October 7, 1942.)

45. October 6, 1942. Decree-Law making obligatory the purchase of war bonds by residents of Brazil to an amount equal to their last income tax payments plus 3 percent of their monthly earnings; government employees will receive 3 percent of their salaries in bonds, 3 percent will be deducted for bonds from the salaries and wages of employees in private industry, and the balance of individual quotas must be met by direct purchase. (*New York Times*, October 7, 1942.)

46. October 6, 1942. Decree creating an Economic Defense Board to control war materials and to take all necessary measures to guard against inflation. (*New York Times*, October 7, 1942.)

47. October 6, 1942. Decree-Law establishing the *cruzeiro* as the national monetary unit in place of the *milréis*, as of November 1, 1942. (*Washington Post*, October 7, 1942.)

48. October 6, 1942. Decree repealing the Presidential Decree that provided for the confiscation of specified percentages of Axis funds (see Brazil 19, BULLETIN, May 1942), and ordering the seizure of such assets *in toto*. (*New York Times*, October 7, 1942.)

CHILE

21a. July 8, 1942. Decree, Departmental Subsistence and Price Commissariat, fixing maximum sales prices for certain articles of prime necessity. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, July 9, 1942.)

25. July —, 1942. Presidential Decree advancing the official time one hour (effective July 31,

1942) and adopting other measures designed to conserve gas and electricity. (*¿ig-¿ag*, Santiago, July 30, 1942.)

26. August 12, 1942. Decree regulating communications with foreign countries. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, August 13, 1942.)

27. August 13, 1942. Decree, General Subsistence and Price Commissariat, providing for strict control over meat production and distribution. (*El Mercurio*, Santiago, August 14, 1942.)

COLOMBIA

31c. June 15, 1942. Presidential Decree creating Military Fellowship Day and the Military Medal, which will be awarded for distinguished action in active service of the armed forces. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, June 16, 1942.)

34. June 24, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1485, prohibiting strikes in river navigation and other public services and dictating orders regarding labor disputes. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, June 25, 1942.)

35. June 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1500, providing that trust funds belonging to German, Italian, or Japanese nationals cannot be withdrawn from banks until further notice. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, June 26, 1942.)

36. June 26, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 1527, rendering homage to the victims who perished on the Colombian schooner *Resolute*, sunk by a German submarine in Caribbean waters June 23, 1942. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, June 27, 1942.)

37. June 27, 1942. Presidential Decree prohibiting the importation and exportation of United States currency except when the transactions are handled by or through the Bank of the Republic. (*El Tiempo*, Bogotá, June 28, 1942.)

CUBA

195a. July 27, 1942. Resolution No. 25, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, suspending until further notice all operations, with specified exceptions, relative to the distribution, purchase, and sale of new tires and tubes. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 6, 1942, mentioned in *Gaceta Oficial*, September 1, 1942, p. 15805.)

197a. August 6, 1942. Special Order No. 1, Cuban Maritime Commission, regulating the use of a specified boat owned by the Government but leased to a private concern. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 24, 1942, p. 15291.)

197b. August 6, 1942. Emergency Resolution No. 3, National Transportation Commission,

extending for ten days the period allowed in Emergency Resolution No. 1, National Transportation Commission (see Cuba 195, BULLETIN, October 1942), for making declarations in regard to automotive public carriers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 7, 1942, p. 14276.)

197c. August 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2196, establishing the Office of Child Protection and Defense (*Dirección de Protección y Defensa del Niño*), to operate in conjunction with the Central Civilian Defense Board (*Junta Central de Defensa Civil*) (see Cuba 59, BULLETIN, May 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 13, 1942, p. 14553.)

197d. August 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2197, establishing the Women's Civilian Defense Service (*Servicio Femenino para la Defensa Civil*) to operate in conjunction with the Central Civilian Defense Board. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 13, 1942, p. 14553.)

197e. August 10, 1942. Resolution No. 603, Minister of Labor, prescribing rules for the application to laborers in the construction industry of the provisions of Presidential Decree No. 2041 of July 22, 1942 (see Cuba 194, BULLETIN, October 1942), pertaining to the rights of workers called to compulsory military service. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 24, 1942, p. 15292.)

197f. August 13, 1942. General Order No. 1, Cuban Maritime Commission, ordering a census of Cuban boats of all kinds over 20 feet in length. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 24, 1942, p. 15291.)

197g. August 15, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2348, prescribing the procedure to be followed in the case of shipwrecks suffered in Cuban waters and coasts by the merchant marine of the allied nations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 26, 1942, p. 15423.)

201. August 20, 1942. Resolution No. 36, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, requiring sugar mill proprietors to declare their stocks of fuel oil. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 22, 1942, p. 15198.)

202. August 21, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2349, prescribing restrictive measures in regard to the naturalization of foreigners and the granting of citizenship papers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 25, 1942, p. 15355.)

203. August 25, 1942. Resolution No. 38, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, ordering maintenance of the price of unshelled peanuts as fixed by Presidential Decree No. 896, April 1, 1942 (see Cuba 116, BULLETIN, July 1942), and prescribing further rules and regulations in regard thereto. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 29, 1942, p. 15709.)

204. August 28, 1942. Emergency Resolution No. 6, National Transportation Commission, extending for ten days from August 31, 1942, the time period allowed for making declarations in regard to automotive public carriers (see Cuba 195, BULLETIN, October 1942, and 197*b* above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 29, 1942, p. 15682.)

205. August 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2390, condemning the acts of aggression committed against Brazil and declaring Cuba's solidarity with the Government of Brazil in the purpose of winning the war. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 29, 1942, p. 15675.)

206. August 29, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2394, declaring that non-compliance with decisions or findings of the National Arbitration Commission will prejudice the nation's war effort (see Resolution-Law No. 5 of January 14, 1942, and Presidential Decree No. 559 of March 4, 1942, Cuba 45 and 81, BULLETIN, April and May 1942, respectively), and authorizing the Minister of Justice to prescribe standards to be followed in such cases. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 31, 1942, p. 15771.)

207. August 30, 1942. Resolution No. 39, Office of Price Regulation and Supply, authorizing as of September 1, 1942, under certain circumstances, the purchase, sale, and distribution of new tires and tubes and prescribing other rules and regulations in regard to such operations. (See 195*a* above.) (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 1, 1942, p. 15805.)

208. August 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2396, extending for 15 days the time period for the registration for military service of Cubans between the ages of 18 and 25 years, as required by Resolution-Law No. 4, the Emergency Military Service Law (see Cuba, 37, BULLETIN, April 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 1, 1942, p. 15840.)

209. August 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2404, establishing administrative personnel and making allocations of funds for the Women's Civilian Defense Service (see 197*d* above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 2, 1942, p. 15868.)

210. August 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2406, establishing administrative personnel and making allocations of funds for the Office of Child Protection and Defense (see 197*c* above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 2, 1942, p. 15870.)

211. August 31, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2407, authorizing the appropriation of \$17,000 for the purchase of a coast guard boat. (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 2, 1942, p. 15871.)

DOMINICAN REPUBLIC

39. July 29, 1942. Law No. 60, exempting from the payment of import duties and certain taxes machinery, tools, and raw materials imported exclusively for use in the manufacture of bags, ropes, and other articles generally made of sisal, henequen, and analogous fibers. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 10, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 19, 1942.)

40. August 7, 1942. Decree No. 160, requiring all persons and firms to declare their stocks of chlorine and prohibiting sale or transfer of that chemical without authorization. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 10, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 19, 1942.)

ECUADOR

19*a*. July 1, 1942. New Organic Law of the Armed Forces. (*Registro Oficial*, July 13, 1942. Mentioned in *El Comercio*, Quito, July 23, 1942.)

21. July 17, 1942. Order, General Office of Priorities and Distribution of Imports (*Dirección General de Prioridades y Distribución de Importaciones*), fixing prices for structural iron. (*El Comercio*, Quito, July 18, 1942.)

22. August 8, 1942. Executive decree authorizing the substitution of zinc for nickel in Ecuadorian fractional coins. (Quoted from Ecuadorian press of August 12, 1942, in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 19, 1942.)

23. August 12, 1942. Decrees giving the General Office of Priorities and Distribution of Imports additional power to regulate the distribution and sale of rationed imports, adding tin plate, structural iron and steel, nails, agricultural implements, barbed wire, and staples to the list; requiring permits for all transactions in these commodities; and requiring dealers to submit inventories of stocks on hand. (See Ecuador 10, 12, and 17, BULLETIN, June, July, and October 1942, respectively.) (*El Comercio*, Quito, August 12 and 13, 1942, quoted in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, October 3, 1942.)

EL SALVADOR

30*a*. July 29, 1942. Executive Decree changing, for the duration of the war, Article 3 of the Regulations on Stamped Paper and Revenue Stamps of October 15, 1915, since the paper specified can no longer be secured. (*Diario Oficial*, July 31, 1942.)

31. (Correction) August 1, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 56. (*Diario Oficial*, August 11, 1942.)

32. August 1, 1942. Legislative Decree No. 55, levying a tax on cigarettes as an emergency measure to provide additional revenue for the General Fund, which has been greatly reduced because of present economic conditions. (*Diario Oficial*, August 11, 1942.)

33. August 29, 1942. Order, Committee on Economic Coordination, reducing gasoline quotas and changing bus schedules in order to conserve gasoline. (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, August 31, 1942.)

34. September 2, 1942. Executive Decree No. 12, extending the state of siege originally declared in Legislative Decree No. 91 of December 8, 1941 (see El Salvador 2, 13, and 26, BULLETIN, April, June, and October 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, September 5, 1942.)

35. September 16, 1942. Order, Committee on Economic Coordination, further restricting auto-bus service, starting September 20, 1942, in order to conserve gasoline. (*Diario Nuevo*, San Salvador, September 17, 1942.)

GUATEMALA

37. September 10, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2943, prescribing that the terms of installment-purchase and rental contracts on motor vehicles used by their owners or lessees exclusively in the transportation industry shall be inapplicable as long as the rationing of gasoline and tires remains in effect. Retroactive to August 1, 1942. (*Diario de Centro América*, September 12, 1942.)

38. September 18, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 2951, making Decrees Nos. 2789 and 2791 (see Guatemala 27 and 28, BULLETIN, October 1942) applicable to central offices and independent entities that have charge of bookkeeping records, files, funds, or deposits from the farms, mills, and plantations over which supervision has been decreed, or that were established especially to administer such property. (*Diario de Centro América*, September 19, 1942.)

HAITI

48. (Correction) Executive Decree No. 165. (*Le Moniteur*, July 9, 1942.)

49. July 15, 1942. Executive Decree No. 169, amending the Decree of March 19, 1942 (see Haiti 37, BULLETIN, July 1942), which prohibited the reexportation of new or used automobiles, tires, tubes, or other accessories, to include cement; gasoline; petroleum and its derivatives; automobiles, motorcycles, bicycles, tires, tubes,

and other accessories, either new or used; distilling apparatus or parts; and copper vessels or their parts. (*Le Moniteur*, July 16, 1942.)

50. July 21, 1942. Executive Decree No. 174, facilitating the work of the Institute of Inter-American Affairs (division of the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs) by providing that any sanitation projects may be carried out without regard for property rights, inasmuch as such work is of importance to national defense. (*Le Moniteur*, July 23, 1942.)

51. July 21, 1942. Notice issued by the Department of National Defense to the effect that war time should be observed starting at midnight July 21, 1942, and all clocks and watches advanced one hour. (*Le Moniteur*, July 23, 1942.)

HONDURAS

15*b*. August 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 50 authorizing the salaries to be paid specified banking agencies handling the frozen funds of enemy nationals and providing that the salaries be deducted from those funds. (*La Gaceta*, August 5, 1942.)

16. (Correction) August 5, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 51. (*La Gaceta*, August 5, 1942.)

MEXICO

37*b*. June 8, 1942. Decree extending to September 30, 1942, the period for registration of foreigners resident in Mexico. (See Mexico 8*b*, BULLETIN, May 1942.) (*Diario Oficial*, August 10, 1942.)

47*a*. June 16, 1942. Decree establishing the Mixed Regional Economic Councils (*Consejos Mixtos de Economía Regional*) as organisms for the coordination of the nation's regional activities in agriculture, industry, transportation, and commerce, and amending the Decree of September 24, 1941, which authorized the creation of the Mixed Agricultural Development Councils (*Consejos Mixtos de Fomento Agropecuario*). Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, July 25, 1942.)

54*a*. June 30, 1942. Decree creating the Federal Economic Planning Commission (*Comisión Federal de Planificación Económica*) as a consulting organism of the Department of National Economy, its functions to be to study all programs and proposals made by the Mixed Regional Economic Councils (see 47*a* above) and the concrete economic problems created by the war, and to formulate programs for the economic mobilization required by inter-American cooperation. Effective day follow-

ing publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, July 9, 1942. Clarified in *Diario Oficial*, August 1, 1942.)

56a. July 10, 1942. General Regulations for the Military Sanitary Services. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, September 23, 1942.)

60a. July 21, 1942. Decree adding the following products to the list of those on which exportation was restricted by the Decrees of December 9, 1941, March 6, 1942, and April 28, 1942 (see Mexico 1a and 21, BULLETIN, June 1942, and 32, BULLETIN, August 1942): Sugar, brown sugar, cane syrups, cacao, new and used bags of *ixtle de palma*, all kinds of cotton textiles and knit goods, oils, hogs, materials for electrical installation, wire, industrial machinery, and metal hardware. (This decree preceded the one listed as Mexico 64 in BULLETIN, November 1942.) Effective day following publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, August 10, 1942.)

81. September 7, 1942. Order, Office of Public Health, fixing maximum prices for medicinal products, revoking the first list and amending some of the prices contained in the second list (see Mexico 71 and 77, BULLETIN, November 1942). (*Diario Oficial*, September 9, 1942.)

82. September 8, 1942. Decree supplementing Art. 3 of the decree which created the Federal Economic Planning Commission (see 54a above), in regard to technical representatives on the Commission. (*Diario Oficial*, September 22, 1942.)

83. September 9, 1942. Emergency Law on betting and games of chance, which, in view of the suspension of certain individual constitutional guarantees because of the war (see Mexico 39 and 43, BULLETIN, August and September 1942), declares such wagers and games, with specified exceptions, to be illegal, and provides penalties for infringements of the law. (*Diario Oficial*, September 11, 1942.)

84. September 9, 1942. Law regulating Art. 1 of the Law of June 11, 1942 (see Mexico 43, BULLETIN, September 1942), relative to the suspension of individual constitutional guarantees. Effective on publication in the *Diario Oficial*. (*Diario Oficial*, September 12, 1942.)

85. September 9, 1942. Decree supplementing the decree of August 27, 1942 (see Mexico 80, BULLETIN, November 1942), and fixing an export duty of 6.70 pesos per kilogram for silver in bars produced and presented in the federal assay or customs offices up to August 30, 1942. (*Diario Oficial*, September 19, 1942.)

86. September 17, 1942. Law establishing the Supreme National Defense Council (*Consejo Supremo de la Defensa Nacional*), to work in collaboration with the Executive Power in matters concerning defense of the country. (*Diario Oficial*, September 23, 1942.)

87. September 17, 1942. Order, Office of Public Health, containing an additional list of medicinal products and fixing their maximum prices. (See Mexico 71 and 77, BULLETIN, November 1942, and 81 above.) (*Diario Oficial*, September 19, 1942.)

88. September 23, 1942. Order, Inter-Departmental Board on Enemy Property and Business, supplementing previously published lists of persons and firms included under the provisions of the law on enemy property and business. (See Mexico 44, 45, and 46, BULLETIN, September 1942, and 52, BULLETIN, October 1942.) (*Diario Oficial*, September 26, 1942.)

NICARAGUA

20. July 18, 1942. Decree placing the movement of United States currency and coin into and out of Nicaragua under control. Effective July 30, 1942. (*Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, September 26, 1942.)

PANAMA

23. August 12, 1942. Executive decree providing that for the duration of the war duty need be paid only on imported goods actually arriving in Panama and not on amounts stated in documents and invoices covering shipments. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 31, 1942, mentioned in *Foreign Commerce Weekly*, Washington, October 3, 1942.)

24. August 18, 1942. Executive decree fixing penalties for members of crews and passengers of ships arriving or departing from ports of Panama who serve as carriers for uncensored mail. (*Star and Herald*, Panama, August 19, 1942.)

PARAGUAY

18. (Correction) May 30, 1942. Decree No. 12,869, establishing a provisional system of gasoline rationing. (*El País*, Asunción, June 30, 1942.)

20. June 27, 1942. Decree establishing a permanent system of gasoline rationing. (*El País*, Asunción, June 30, 1942.)

PERU

13a. April 28, 1942. Supreme Resolution approving the agreement signed in Washington

March 11, 1942, relating to the reciprocal supplying of defense materials and information on the part of the United States and Peru (see *Bilateral and Multilateral Measures 8*, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*El Peruano*, August 18, 1942.)

19a. July 14, 1942. Supreme Resolution prohibiting customs authorities from making iron, steel, and tin plate deliveries without previous authorization from the Treasury Department. (*El Peruano*, July 16, 1942.)

21. July 27, 1942. Presidential Decree regulating the importation and sale of toilet articles. (*El Comercio*, Lima, July 29, 1942.)

22. August 12, 1942. Supreme Resolution No. 612, creating the Commission for the Control of Supplies of Medicinal Products (*Comisión de Control de Abastecimientos de Productos Medicinales*). (*El Peruano*, August 14, 1942.)

23. August 12, 1942. Ministerial Resolution fixing the price of crushed rice. (*El Peruano*, August 14, 1942.)

24. August 12, 1942. Ministerial Resolution providing that only Peruvian boats can be stocked with rice and fresh meat. (*El Peruano*, August 14, 1942.)

25. August 14, 1942. Supreme Decree placing the control of petroleum and its by-products produced in Peru under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of the Navy and Aviation, and authorizing the latter to appoint a Petroleum and By-Products Director. (*El Peruano*, August 19, 1942.)

26. August 17, 1942. Ministerial Resolution appointing the Director of Navy Supplies as Petroleum and By-Products Director (see 25 above). (*El Peruano*, August 19, 1942.)

27. August 17, 1942. Ministerial Resolution providing that petroleum will no longer be supplied vessels in the port of Callao except in cases of emergency as approved by the Petroleum and By-Products Director. (*El Peruano*, August 19, 1942.)

28. August 17, 1942. Supreme Resolution No. 449, providing that the International Petroleum Company will accept no new customers and will base individual sales on customers' average monthly purchases for the year ending July 31, 1942. (*El Peruano*, August 21, 1942.)

UNITED STATES

234. September 12, 1942. Executive Order No. 9243, providing that the transfer and release of Federal personnel shall be governed and directed by the Chairman of the War Manpower Commission. (*Federal Register*, September 15, 1942.)

235. September 12, 1942. War Production Board, Supplementary Directive 1-M, delegating authority to the Office of Price Administration with respect to the rationing control of meat. (*Federal Register*, September 15, 1942.)

236. September 16, 1942. Public Law 711 (77th Congress), suspending in part the processing tax on coconut oil.

237. September 16, 1942. Public Law 712 (77th Congress), providing for a method of voting, in time of war, for members of the land and naval forces absent from their place of residence.

238. September 16, 1942. Executive Order No. 9244, amending Executive Order No. 9054, which established the War Shipping Administration in the Executive Office of the President and defined its duties and functions. (See United States 49, BULLETIN, April 1942.) (*Federal Register*, September 18, 1942.)

239. September 16, 1942. Executive Order No. 9245, transferring to the Secretary of the Interior the functions of the United States High Commissioner to the Philippine Islands. (*Federal Register*, September 18, 1942.)

240. September 17, 1942. Executive Order No. 9246, providing for the coordination and control of the Nation's rubber program; giving the Chairman of the War Production Board full responsibility for and control of that program in all its phases; providing for the appointment within the War Production Board of a Rubber Director and outlining his duties and functions. (*Federal Register*, September 19, 1942.)

241. September 17, 1942. Executive Order No. 9247, transferring certain employment service and training functions to the War Manpower Commission. (*Federal Register*, September 19, 1942.)

242. September 17, 1942. Executive Order No. 9248, amending Executive Order No. 9240 entitled "Regulations relating to overtime wage compensation" (see United States 233, BULLETIN, November 1942). (*Federal Register*, September 22, 1942.)

243. September 23, 1942. War Shipping Administration, General Order No. 22, prescribing regulations and minimum standards for State maritime academics for merchant marine training. (*Federal Register*, September 26, 1942.)

244. September 23, 1942. War Shipping Administration, General Order No. 23, prescribing regulations for the government of the United

States Maritime Service. (*Federal Register*, September 26, 1942.)

245. September 23, 1942. War Shipping Administration, General Order No. 24, relative to the appointment and training of cadets in the United States Merchant Marine Cadet Corps. (*Federal Register*, September 26, 1942.)

246. September 26, 1942. Public Law 715 (77th Congress), amending the District of Columbia Emergency Rent Act (Pub. Law 327, 77th Congress), in regard to landlords' recovery of housing accommodations.

247. September 26, 1942. Office of Defense Transportation, General Order No. 23, limiting the speed of motor vehicles within continental United States to (1) the applicable speed limit duly prescribed by competent public authority, or (2) 35 miles per hour, whichever is the lesser rate of speed, in order to conserve and properly to utilize vital transportation equipment, material, and supplies, including rubber, and to provide for the prompt and continuous movement of necessary traffic, the attainment of which purpose is essential to successful prosecution of the war. (*Federal Register*, September 29, 1942.)

248. September 29, 1942. Public Law 718 (77th Congress), making transportation and storage facilities available for military use where military necessity exists, by authorizing the removal to other points of merchandise in customs custody.

249. September 29, 1942. Public Law 719 (77th Congress), amending the Soil Conservation and Domestic Allotment Act to authorize payments in cases where farmers' crops are acquired, prior to harvest, in connection with the acquisition of their farms for use in the national war effort, and to provide for the division of such payments.

250. October 1, 1942. Public Law 721 (77th Congress), amending Sec. 61 of the National Defense Act of June 3, 1916, as amended, for the purpose of providing State and Territorial military forces with such arms, ammunition, clothing, and equipment as are deemed necessary to enable them to execute their internal security responsibilities within their respective States and Territories, and for other purposes.

251. October 1, 1942. Public Law 722 (77th Congress), amending the Act of May 19, 1926, entitled "An Act to authorize the President to detail officers and enlisted men of the United States Army, Navy, and Marine Corps to assist

the governments of the Latin American republics in military and naval matters," to include, during war or a declared national emergency, the governments of such other countries as the President deems it in the interest of national defense to assist.

252. October 1, 1942. Public Law 723 (77th Congress), increasing by \$600,000,000 the amount authorized to be appropriated for defense housing under the Act of October 14, 1940, as amended.

253. October 1, 1942. Public Law 724 (77th Congress), authorizing a reduction from four to three years in the course of instruction at the United States Military Academy.

254. October 1, 1942. Office of Price Administration, Restriction Order No. 1, providing for meat restriction by establishing quotas for slaughtering of controlled meat (beef, veal, mutton, lamb, and pork). (*Federal Register*, October 3, 1942.)

255. October 2, 1942. Public Law 729 (77th Congress), amending the Emergency Price Control Act of 1942 (see United States 42, BULLETIN, April 1942), to aid in preventing inflation, by authorizing and directing the President, on or before November 1, 1942, to issue a general order stabilizing prices, wages, and salaries affecting the cost of living, on the basis, as far as practicable, of the levels which existed on September 15, 1942.

256. October 3, 1942. Executive Order No. 9250, providing for the stabilization of the national economy by establishing an Office of Economic Stabilization in the Office for Emergency Management of the Executive Office of the President, authorizing the appointment of an Economic Stabilization Director, and outlining his duties and functions; prescribing a wage and salary stabilization policy and its administrative procedure; and providing for the stabilization of agricultural commodity prices, the regulation of profits, and the granting of subsidies to insure the maximum necessary production and distribution of any commodity, or to maintain selling prices, or to prevent a price rise inconsistent with the purposes of this Order. (*Federal Register*, October 6, 1942.)

257. October 3, 1942. Executive Order No. 9251, suspending the eight-hour law as to laborers and mechanics employed by the Civil Aeronautics Administration in the construction of public works necessary for the successful prosecution of the war. (*Federal Register*, October 7, 1942.)

258. October 6, 1942. Public Law 731 (77th Congress). Joint Resolution to remove certain limitations on the cost of construction of Army and Navy living quarters.

259. October 6, 1942. Public Law 732 (77th Congress), amending the Soldiers' and Sailors Civil Relief Act of 1940, as amended, to extend the relief and benefits provided therein to certain persons, to include certain additional proceedings and transactions therein, to provide further relief for persons in military service, to change certain insurance provisions thereof, and for other purposes.

URUGUAY

3a. December 12, 1941. Executive Resolution No. 531/941, authorizing the importation of 4 million liters (1,056,710 gallons) of kerosene from Argentina. (*Diario Oficial*, December 22, 1941.)

61a. July 17, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 145/942, requiring declarations of stocks on hand of materials for construction and ship repair. (*Diario Oficial*, July 27, 1942.)

63. July 24, 1942. Decree-law repealing the requirement that the 50 percent surtax on imports of merchandise must be paid in gold, and waiving the surtax entirely on specified articles of prime necessity. (*Diario Oficial*, July 29, 1942.)

64. July 28, 1942. Presidential decree extending the gasoline rationing system already in effect (see Uruguay 11c, BULLETIN, November 1942). (*El País*, Montevideo, August 1, 1942.)

VENEZUELA

2. (Correction) December 11, 1941.

30a. May 22, 1942. Resolution No. 15-2, National Price Regulation Board, providing that starting June 1, 1942, motor vehicles used for freight or public conveyance cannot run on the Caracas-La Guaira highway without a permit from the National Price Regulation Board. (*Gaceta Oficial*, May 22, 1942.)

40a. June 18, 1942. Resolution No. 593, Ministry of Development, adding fire extinguishers and their fluids to the list of articles of prime necessity. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 18, 1942.)

40b. June 18, 1942. Resolution No. 23, National Price Regulation Board, fixing the maximum sales prices for wheat bread. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 18, 1942.)

40c. June 18, 1942. Resolution No. 24, National Price Regulation Board, providing that merchants having iron dowels or beams in stock may sell them only to metallic construction factories, to builders, or to individuals having some building under construction; applicable prices are those established by Resolution No. 10 of March 14,

1942 (see Venezuela 21, BULLETIN, July 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 18, 1942.)

40d. June 18, 1942. Resolution No. 25-3, National Price Regulation Board, providing that the final licenses referred to in Resolution No. 15-2 of May 22, 1942 (see 30a above) for travel on the Caracas-La Guaira highway will be granted only to holders of provisional permits appearing on the National Price Regulation Board's list of those qualified as carriers offering regular service between Caracas and La Guaira. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 18, 1942.)

40e. June 22, 1942. Resolution No. 26, National Price Regulation Board, providing that bread, food paste, and cracker manufacturers in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda may not sell flour from their stocks without previous authorization from the National Price Regulation Board. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 22, 1942.)

40f. June 22, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 140, confirming and enlarging on Decree No. 57 of March 20, 1942 (see Venezuela 23, BULLETIN, July 1942) by ordering the War and Navy Department to sell the one German ship and six Italian ships referred to in said decree. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 23, 1942.)

40g. June 23, 1942. Resolution No. 27-4, National Price Regulation Board, prescribing the procedure for the purchase and sale of new tires and inner tubes and the retreading of used tires. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 23, 1942.)

40h. June 23, 1942. Resolution No. 28, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for lard. (*Gaceta Oficial*, June 23, 1942.)

41a. July 3, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 152 amplifying Decrees of December 11, 1941 and December 16, 1941 (see Venezuela 2, BULLETIN April 1942, as corrected above, and 4, BULLETIN April 1942,) and of May 18, 1942, by placing the movement of United States currency in and out of Venezuela under strict control, to be handled only through the Central Bank of Venezuela. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 4, 1942.)

41b. July 7, 1942. Resolution No. 28-5, National Price Regulation Board, providing that motorized freight vehicles or public conveyances may not run between Valencia and Puerto Cabello without a special license issued by the National Price Regulation Board. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 7, 1942.)

44. (Correction) July 15, 1942. Resolution No. 32, National Price Regulation Board, further

regulating the sale of flour stocks by bread, food paste, and cracker manufacturers in the Federal District and the Sucre District of the State of Miranda and revoking Resolution No. 26 of June 22, 1942 (see 40*e* above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 16, 1942.)

48*a*. July 25, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 166, enlarging on the purpose of the restriction of the exercise of specified individual guarantees as established by the Decree of December 11, 1941 (see Venezuela 2, BULLETIN, April 1942, as corrected above) by creating a Commission to study the application in each individual case of the provisions of the Decrees of December 11, 1941, and December 16, 1941 (see Venezuela 4, BULLETIN, April 1942) and to recommend the adoption of any similar measures that would be for the good of the national economy. (*Gaceta Oficial*, July 25, 1942.)

51. August 12, 1942. Presidential Decree No. 191, authorizing the replacement of bills of lading covering merchandise originating in England and destined for Venezuela with transshipment in Curaçao, by those made out in Curaçao by the agent or captain of the boat carrying the freight to Venezuela, after seeing the original bills of lading or the information contained in the corresponding manifest. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 12, 1942.)

52. August 12, 1942. Resolution No. 38, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for kerosene superseding those given in the Resolution of March 14, 1942 (see Venezuela 21, BULLETIN, July 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 12, 1942.)

53. August 28, 1942. Resolution No. 39, National Price Regulation Board, requiring all merchants, builders, and individuals to declare their stocks of iron dowels in excess of 250 kilos and beams in excess of 10 kilos, and further regulating the sale of said articles (see 40*c* above). (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 28, 1942.)

54. August 28, 1942. Resolution No. 40, National Price Regulation Board, freezing apartment rents and issuing relative regulations. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 29, 1942.)

55. August 28, 1942. Resolution No. 41, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for nails used in the shoe industry. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 29, 1942.)

56. August 28, 1942. Resolution No. 42, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for accessories for kerosene ranges and stoves. (*Gaceta Oficial*, August 29, 1942.)

57. August 30, 1942. Resolution, National Price Regulation Board, fixing maximum sales prices for certain medicinal products and in some cases revising the prices given in the Resolution of June 30, 1942 (see Venezuela 41, BULLETIN, November 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 1, 1942.)

58. September 1, 1942. Resolution No. 43-8, National Price Regulation Board, providing that prices for motor vehicles will be determined by the National Price Regulation Board, issuing regulations pertaining to the registration of said vehicles, and revoking Resolution No. 6 of February 3, 1942 (see Venezuela 13, BULLETIN, June 1942). (*Gaceta Oficial*, September 1, 1942.)

BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL MEASURES

48*a*. September 8 (?), 1942. Accord between the United States and Brazil to improve production of basic foodstuffs in Northern Brazil. (*Boletim*, Departamento de Imprensa e Propaganda, Rio de Janeiro, September 15, 1942, and *Press Release*, Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs, Washington, September, 1942.)

51. (*Bulletin*, United States Department of State, September 19, 1942.)

52. October 2, 1942. Reciprocal defense pact between Cuba and Mexico, designed primarily to combat Axis submarine warfare in the Caribbean and Gulf of Mexico. (*New York Times*, October 3, 1942.)

53. October 6, 1942. Protocol signed at Washington by the Acting Secretary of State, the Ambassador of the Soviet Union, and the British Minister, regarding delivery by the United States and Great Britain to the Soviet Union of military equipment, munitions, and raw materials. (*Press Release*, United States Department of State, October 6, 1942.)

Pan American Union NOTES

THE GOVERNING BOARD

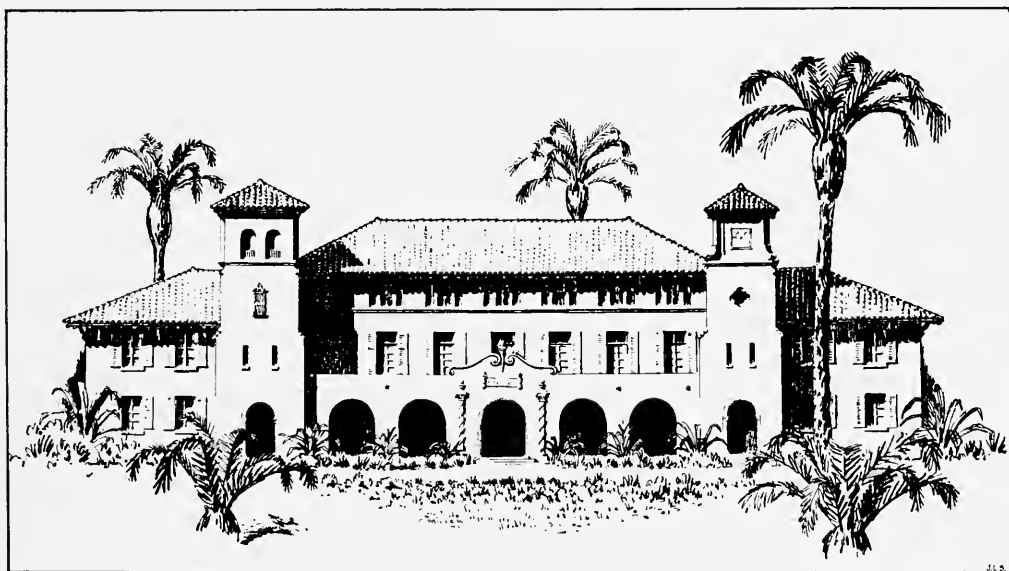
THE Governing Board of the Pan American Union met in special session October 7, 1942.

Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences

The first matter taken up by the Board was the location of the office to be established by the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences. At a special meeting on July 2, 1942, the Governing Board had received the report of the Inter-American Committee on Agriculture relative to the organization of the Institute. That report, made in April 1942, recommended acceptance of the proposal of the Technical Committee from the United States

Department of Agriculture which, after studying the sites offered for the Institute by Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, and Venezuela, recommended establishment of the Institute office at the site offered by the Republic of Costa Rica.

Action on this recommendation was postponed at the special meeting of the Governing Board on July 2, in order to give the twenty-one American Governments time to consider the matter fully. By October nineteen countries had sent favorable replies, and therefore, by a vote of nineteen, with members from two countries abstaining from voting, the Board approved the establishment of the Institute's first field



Courtesy of the United States Department of Agriculture

ARCHITECT'S DRAWING OF THE ADMINISTRATION BUILDING OF THE INTER-AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES AT TURRIALBA.



Photograph by H. F. Allard, U. S. D. A.

SITE OF THE INTER-AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES

The government of Costa Rica gave the Institute more than 1200 acres of fertile land near Turrialba, a town situated on the Atlantic side about 2000 feet above sea level and 62 miles from Puerto Limón.

The office of the Institute will be built on the land shown in the left center of this view.

office at Turrialba, Costa Rica. Board members were reminded by the Director General of the Pan American Union that the regulations of the Institute, which has its permanent headquarters in Washington, provide for establishment of additional offices and experimental stations in other countries of the continent as and when deemed advisable.

According to the organic statutes and by-laws of the Inter-American Institute of Agricultural Sciences, members of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union are *ex officio* members of the governing body of the Institute. Therefore, at the close of the meeting of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, the members met immediately in

their capacity as governing board members of the Institute, to consider the election of a Director and Secretary of that organization. Dr. Earl N. Bressman, until recently Director of the Agricultural Division in the Office of the Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs and prior to that connected with the United States Department of Agriculture, was unanimously elected Director of the Institute. Dr. Bressman's choice of Mr. José L. Colom, Chief of the Division of Agricultural Cooperation of the Pan American Union, to serve as Secretary of the Institute, was also unanimously approved. It should be added that Mr. Colom continues his connection with the Pan American Union.

Plans for the Institute (then called Institute of Tropical Agriculture) were described at some length in an article by Dr. Bressman, *Projects in Inter-American Agricultural Cooperation*, published in the February 1942 issue of the BULLETIN. Its purposes were outlined as follows by the Honorable Henry A. Wallace, now Vice President of the United States, while he was Secretary of Agriculture: "Promotion of a better balanced agricultural economy in the Western Hemisphere; preparation of comprehensive data on the agricultural problems of the American republics; development of a broad knowledge of tropical agricultural pests and diseases; solution of serious problems in crop and animal production; and creation of understanding among future agricultural leaders of the Americas."

The attainment of these objectives would be invaluable to all inhabitants of the Americas, and much is to be expected of this new scientific institution.

Inter-American copyright protection

Another matter considered by the Governing Board at its October 7 session was the report of the Committee of the Governing Board appointed to give effect to the resolution on inter-American copyright protection (No. XXXIX) approved by the Eighth International Conference of American States at Lima in 1938. The Committee's report, which recommended calling a special conference of experts to assemble in Washington on or before April 1, 1943, to consider a copyright protocol, was approved, contingent, however, upon whether or not the necessary priorities for the transportation of delegates may be obtained.

Fundamental principles of international law

Another topic discussed by the Governing Board was the project of resolution submitted to the governments members of the Pan American Union by the Inter-American Juridical Committee, now meeting in Rio de Janeiro, in regard to a reaffirmation of fundamental principles of international law. The Board agreed upon the appointment of a committee to consider the resolution and the amendments to the project suggested by the Government of Venezuela, and to report at a later date.

Bank of Agricultural Credit

The Second Inter-American Conference of Agriculture, which met in July 1942 at Mexico City, approved a resolution asking the Pan American Union to study the question of establishing a Bank of Agricultural Credit. In view of the fact that this matter was deemed by the Governing Board to fall within the jurisdiction of the Inter-American Financial and Economic Advisory Committee, a proposal that the matter be referred to that Committee for consideration was approved.

Resolution of condolence

A resolution of condolence was adopted by the Board relative to the death of Dr. Esteban Gil Borges, who was for 12 years Assistant Director of the Pan American Union and later Minister of Foreign Affairs of Venezuela. The Director General of the Pan American Union was asked to transmit the resolution to the Government of Venezuela and the family of Dr. Gil Borges.

Pan American *NEWS*

Message of the President of Mexico

IN his annual message delivered at the opening of Congress on September 1, 1942, President Manuel Ávila Camacho of Mexico reported on the state of the nation, discussing at length a great variety of subjects of national and international interest. Mexico, allied with the other free nations of the world, is doing its share in the war against the Axis, and the voluminous facts and figures presented in the President's report reveal the Government's achievements during the preceding twelvemonth leading toward both improvement of national life and preservation of the institution of democracy.

An analysis of the sections of the report devoted to the various government departments makes clear that the basis of Mexico's national and international policy the past year was as expressed by the President when he spoke these words:

In the fateful times which the oppression of dictatorships has imposed upon the world, the first law is to live, and in order to live—and live with honor—one thing above all others is urgent: the logical and coordinated use of the multiple possibilities of the country. That is the reason why, in addressing my fellow citizens, I have so often reiterated in recent months my exhortations to work and concord. A nation that produces badly, or that does not produce, or that wastes in unnecessary extravagance what it produces, is a nation defeated in advance. On the other hand, how can a nation weakened by discord produce? These two requirements for victory, strength and good will, have been and will continue to be my essential concern as President of this country. . . . To win the war, the entire country must contribute: today, with its work, its heart, and its intelligence; tomorrow, perhaps, with its blood and its courage. . . . In the struggle we have accepted we are not alone. . . . Our essential duty

now is to cooperate with the democracies to hasten the end of the war. All of us feel this duty and we are complying with it to the full measure of our ability under the circumstances. . . . The postulates of the Atlantic Charter are not mere phrases written on paper. We have faith in the statesmen who signed that Charter. Behind those statesmen are their nations, all the nations that, like ours, desire a better order and a better democracy in a better world.

The message detailed at some length Mexico's attitude and activities in the field of international relations and the Government's action for internal security of the country by virtue of the extraordinary powers granted the President by the war decree of June 1, 1942.

Discussion of the first topic was prefaced by the statement that even before the American nations entered the world conflict, Mexico's policy was directed toward maintaining complete respect for its national sovereignty, avoiding dangers to the country resulting from the war, and preventing the development or spread within the country of any kind of anti-democratic activities.

The President pointed out that diplomatic relations with Great Britain, which had been broken off at the time of the oil expropriations in March 1938, were resumed on October 22, 1941; also, early in December 1941 diplomatic representatives were accredited to the free governments in exile of Belgium, the Netherlands, Norway, and Poland. The Pearl Harbor attack radically changed the international situation and, solemnly reiterating its good faith and adherence to its inter-American contractual obligations, Mexico severed diplomatic relations with Japan on December 8 and with Germany

and Italy on December 11, 1941. Numerous measures were subsequently adopted to prevent espionage and all kinds of subversive activities within the country by the totalitarian powers, and other steps were taken by means of official decrees to facilitate and generally to assist the war effort of the United Nations, such as conceding special privileges to boats, planes, and troops of American nations at war, authorizing the exportation of basic strategic products not only to the American nations but also to Great Britain, China, and the U. S. S. R., and similar others. The President also recounted at some length the facts regarding Mexico's prominent role at the Third Meeting of Ministers of Foreign Affairs at Rio de Janeiro. With the attacks in May 1942 by Axis submarines on Mexican shipping in Caribbean waters, Mexico's position changed again; war was declared on the Axis and on June 14, 1942, Mexico adhered to the Declaration of the United Nations, pledging itself to use all its military and economic resources against the members of the Tripartite Pact.

Another phase of Mexican foreign affairs that merited special treatment by the President was the question of Mexican-United States relations. He recalled the several steps recently taken toward settling matters that had been pending between the two countries for some years: the Claims Convention; the fixing of indemnities for the oil expropriations (which, said the President, thus "legally consummates the most important step ever taken by our country in the path of its economic liberation"); stabilization of the peso-dollar exchange; the silver purchase agreement and the increase in the price from 35 to 45 cents an ounce; Export-Import Bank financing of Mexican highway construction; lease-lend aid for the modernization of army equipment; initiation of

negotiations for a trade agreement; and the arrangement for the employment of Mexican farm hands in the United States. All these, said the President, happily indicate the confidence, cordiality, and mutual respect that now characterize Mexico's relations with its neighbor to the north.

Speaking of steps taken for national security and defense, particularly since the suspension of individual constitutional guarantees by the decree of June 1, the Chief Executive mentioned various measures adopted in regard to the safety and registration of foreigners resident in the country; vigilance over nationals of the Axis Powers and the administration of their confiscated goods and properties; restrictions on immigration from Europe; control of radio broadcasts, telegraph, and telephone communications; nullification of naturalization papers of Axis nationals; the decree putting into effect the obligatory military service law; the civilian defense act; and others of the same ilk. Continuing in the same category, the President recalled several decrees aimed at economic improvement, planning, and use of natural resources to the best advantage, such as those establishing the Mixed Regional Economic Councils and the National Economic Planning Commission and exempting mining enterprises from the payment of income taxes for the duration of the war; the rent control act for the Federal District; the rubber exploitation act; the establishment of the national employment bureau; and various similar decrees.

A gauge of the nation's expanding economy is the impressive increase in national revenues revealed by the President. Expenditures had been budgeted at 555,227,-129 pesos, but by executive decree this amount was increased by 91,920,462 pesos. Income for the first six months of 1942 had

been estimated at 278,005,368 pesos, but actual receipts for that period reached 315,620,233 pesos, an increase of 13.5 percent over the estimate. There was a considerable decrease in collections from import duties—10,115,759 pesos below estimates for the first six months of the year—but on the other hand the income tax yielded 9,645,576 pesos and industrial taxes 21,661,997 pesos more than had been anticipated for the same period.

Public works financing during the year was accomplished by the issuance of highway, irrigation, railway, and electric power bonds to the extent of 208,500,000 pesos, of which 25,174,000 pesos had been amortized by August 31, 1942. Additional highway and irrigation bonds to the amount of 296,600,000 pesos are now in the process of being issued. Service on all bonds is being met when due, being guaranteed by earmarked federal taxes.

Efforts of the Executive Power and the Departments of the Treasury, National Economy, and Agriculture, said the President, have been studiously directed toward achieving a general and systematic increase in production of agriculture, manufacturing, and mining industries. Plans for expansion of sugar production and processing facilities are being financed by the sugar tax; mining activities received a great impulse, first, generally, because of the increased demand for metals for war use, second, specifically, because of the U. S. Metals Reserve Company agreement to acquire surpluses of specified strategic metals and mineral products, and third, because of credit facilities extended by the Government for the purpose of expanding existing mining activity and placing under exploitation hitherto unexploited mineral reserves.

Substantial efforts were made during the year by means of various price and export control laws and the creation of distribu-

tion and control organisms to prevent scarcities of articles of prime necessity and any undue rise in the cost of living. To meet the increasingly serious problem of securing timely supplies of necessary raw materials and other goods whose chief source of supply is now the United States, an agreement was made with that country for the establishment of global quotas and a system of certificates of necessity was inaugurated to serve as a basis for securing United States export permits. This policy had good results, the President announced; licenses were recently approved, for example, for immediate shipment to Mexico of large quantities of tin, iron, and steel destined for the use of the National Railways, and wool and paper pulp sufficient to maintain for some time the activities of the industries dependent upon those elements.

The oil industry, according to the President, is pursuing its activities in spite of the obstacles created by the war. It has maintained its installations through the importation of some indispensable equipment and materials, although it has not been possible to expand refineries and construct new ones in accordance with the development program that had been planned. Geological and geophysical explorations, essential for future development of the industry, were carried on through the year by several brigades of experts in the various oil producing zones and eight new wells were put into production. Domestic consumption during the first half of 1942 was greater than for the corresponding term during the four preceding years. Distribution within the country was generally satisfactory, the only difficulty arising from lack of transportation facilities. The gradual improvement in exports that had been apparent in 1941, in relation to 1940, was sharply stopped during the first six months of 1942 because of the sinking of one Ameri-

can and four Mexican tankers that formed part of the Mexican oil fleet. Added to this difficulty was the unprecedented cost of marine insurance which caused a temporary paralysis of foreign shipments. A recent arrangement, however, the President stated, was made to adjust the insurance charges, and with the insurance payments on the sunken ships efforts will be made to acquire new transportation. The value of oil exports, 28,114,145 pesos, in the first half of 1942, was very low in comparison with the level attained during the same period in previous years. The average price per barrel, however, was above that of earlier years, being \$1.10, as compared to 94 cents in 1941 and 89 cents in 1940. The President also mentioned the fact that in May 1942 a new labor contract was made with the oil workers syndicate, defining the rights and obligations of both workers and *Petróleos Mexicanos*, which will, it is expected, make possible the development of the industry's activities without prejudicial controversies.

A plan of agricultural mobilization was put into effect, stated the President, the principal aims of which are: to produce all that is necessary for national consumption; to increase production of raw materials for industrial use; to supply the requirements of United States markets which are cut off by the war from supplies in other parts of the world; and to increase the cultivation of products that, notwithstanding their usefulness, have been neglected in the past. A general increase in agricultural production in 1941 over that of 1940 was mentioned by the President as a heartening indication of progress in that field. Wheat production was up 35 percent, corn 29 percent, and cacao 22 percent, and in 1942, he added, the largest cotton crop in the nation's history was expected.

The National Bank of Agricultural

Credit did business during the year with 427 societies whose membership comprises more than 10,000 small farmers, and with 49 private large-scale producers. Total loans exceeded 11,700,000 pesos, an increase of about 5,500,000 over the preceding year. The National Bank of Ejidal Credit extended its services to 5,540 societies and more than 430,000 farmers. The total area under cultivation, the crops of which were underwritten by credits received from the Ejidal Bank, was approximately 2,223,900 acres. Repayments on loans during the year were highly satisfactory, having reached a figure of approximately 61,800,000 pesos. Loans during the same period exceeded the sum repaid by only about 3,000,000 pesos.

Under the Agrarian Department 177 ejidos, divided into 8,916 land parcels and comprising a total area of about 198,200 acres of irrigated land and 7,600 parcels totaling 92,000 acres of seasonal land, were apportioned, and 4,734 titles granted. During the year covered by the President's message 989 presidential orders were signed proclaiming the inalienability of lands comprising 5,688,400 acres and benefiting 42,504 farmers. On July 22, 1942, an executive order was issued authorizing the Agrarian Department to increase the extent of land parcels to double the size that each *ejidatario* is at present cultivating, providing that such increases entail no encroachment upon the rights of other farmers in the same area.

Turning to the subject of communications, the President announced that the Government redoubled its determination to extend the national highway network to meet new defense and economic needs. Work on federal highways during the year—surveying, grading, surfacing, culverts, etc.—was completed on approximately 2,300 miles, at a total cost of 75,827,630

pesos, which represents a considerable advance over previous years. The total federal highway system now extends to a length of nearly 7,000 miles. Bridges have been planned to cost 1,888,000 pesos, of which amount 1,318,000 pesos has already been invested. One of the important bridges finished during the year was "El Marqués" on the highway from the capital to the Guatemalan border. Road maintenance cost 12,324,500 pesos, while expenditures on federally-aided state roads totaled 34,266,868 pesos, plus 2,345,000 pesos spent for bridges. The President stressed the exceptional military and economic significance of the following highways completed or materially advanced during the year in various parts of the country: Tijuana-La Paz; Sonoyta-Punta Peñasco; Nogales-Guadalajara; Mexico-Suchiate; Mexico-Juárez; Mexico-Nautla-Poza Rica; Mexico-Tuxpan; Acapulco-Zihuatanejo; Durango-Mazatlán; Jiquilpan-Colima; and those in the Yucatan Peninsula. Other roads of less general importance but highly beneficial to their particular localities were constructed in the States of Morelos, Guerrero, Jalisco, and Michoacán. In the States of Oaxaca, Jalisco, Aguascalientes, Nuevo León, and Tamaulipas there was noteworthy activity in the construction of federal-state roads.

The construction of new railways was as extensive and rapid as was compatible with the scarcity of certain vital construction materials. The President reported satisfactory progress, under the circumstances, on the Puerto Mexico-Campeche line, particularly in the construction of permanent railway bridges over the principal rivers in Tabasco; and he stated that surveying parties have been laying out the route for the link to be built connecting the Kansas City, Mexico and Oriente Railway with the Pacific Coast.

Rehabilitation of the National Railways

has been progressing, said the President, based on improvement of services and an increased income rather than on any sacrifice of the personnel. Contracts have been completed for the purchase of 33 locomotives, 2,000 freight cars, 270 gondola cars, 200 tank cars, and 20 mail and express coaches, representing an investment of 68,000,000 pesos, of which 35,000,000 has already been paid by the National Treasury from the account of the National Railways. The Railways have had to carry an added burden of freight on account of the shortage or absence of maritime transportation, the President remarked, and as soon as the total of the new equipment is received and put into use, the efficiency of the service will be greatly enhanced. Total receipts of the Railways during the year were 187,000,000 pesos, an increase of 24,000,000 over the preceding year. Even so, this sum was still insufficient to meet the requirements of the reorganization plan, and federal aid of 68,000,000 pesos was pledged, with the possibility that the amount may be increased. By an executive order the wages of railway workers were raised to guarantee them a higher standard of living and in return, the President stated, the nation could expect their loyal, efficient, and disciplined collaboration.

A new education law was approved on January 23, 1942, defining standards for the unification and coordination of educational activities in the republic, and mixed education commissions were created, composed of national and local representatives, for the purpose of unifying the systems. Regional meetings for school zone inspectors were held for discussion, exchange of ideas, and suggestion of adequate solutions for the many vital problems affecting education throughout the country. The total education budget for 1942 was 91,000,000 pesos, 11,000,000

above that for the preceding year, the additional amount being used to cover increases in teachers' salaries, based on their preparation, efficiency, and length of service; new buildings in the Federal District; rent, books, and supplies; cultural missions; and other expenses of administration and maintenance.

In the 390 school zones of the nation (excluding the Federal District), 12,000 rural schools are now functioning, 211 demonstration schools, 20 frontier schools, 42 model schools, 391 day and 28 night schools for adults, and 1,054 Article 123 schools (built and maintained, as required by Art. 123 of the Constitution, by industrial enterprises for the children of their laborers). Registration in these schools last year totaled 1,030,000 pupils. There is still a grave insufficiency of schools in the Federal District, although the Government has continued with faithfulness and determination its efforts to remedy the situation. The present program calls for 36 new schools, said the President; some business enterprises are taking steps for the construction of the schools required of them by Article 123; and through private initiative a fund of 900,000 pesos has been collected for the erection of a primary and secondary school center. Total attendance last year was 240,000 in the public schools and an additional 21,000 in private schools. Adult education requirements in the Federal District are being met in 505 day schools and 72 night schools. Secondary, higher, and technical education also received due attention on the part of the Government and notable progress was achieved in coordinating programs and outlining standards.

Improvement in living standards of the Indian groups continued to be of special concern, stated the President. Various economic-social activities of an experimental order were undertaken jointly by

federal and state authorities for the purpose of testing experience already gained and ultimately introducing whatever legal reforms might be considered advisable to achieve the desired ends. These activities took the form of improvement and colonization missions and regional technical training centers, and while it is still too early to report upon results, great hopes are held for the future, the President announced. Various economic, sanitary, and social problems were treated during the year, covering such activities as the establishment of cooperative stores, the direction of agricultural and stockraising methods, sanitary housing construction, installation of water systems in the Indian population centers, and the systematizing of the credit facilities and management of the producer-consumer cooperatives established by the indigenous groups for the defense of their own interests.

Governmental activity in public health matters was directed toward extending health services even to the remoter sections of the country, said the President, and for that purpose the budget was increased from 19,000,000 pesos in 1941 to 24,000,000 pesos in 1942. To this amount was added, through cooperative arrangements for the coordination of health services, 2,000,000 pesos in local funds and 300,000 pesos from various institutions; and for the expenses of rural hygiene and social medicine, 1,108,000 pesos from the ejidal organizations and 22,000 pesos from contributions. Campaigns against tuberculosis, malaria, leprosy, and other communicable diseases were earnestly carried on, and all such matters as proper diet, pure food and drugs, and general health education were treated with the care and attention they deserve.

Funds allocated in the national budget to the Public Welfare Department were increased during the year by 3,200,000

pesos. Outstanding among the accomplishments of that department was the construction (with a part of the cost in some cases being borne by state or local governments, industries, or workers' organization) of modern hospitals at Veracruz, San Luis Potosí, Monclova, Tuxtla Gutiérrez, Salvatierra, Tampico, Manzanillo, Monterrey, and Nuevo Laredo. These new hospitals, some of which will be enlarged in the future, represent a considerable and much needed extension of hospital services in various parts of the country and they are bound to reflect beneficially on the areas concerned.

—D. M. T.

Inter-American action against subversive activities

The inaugural session of the Inter-American Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense was held at Montevideo on April 15, 1942.

Following the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics held at Rio de Janeiro in January 1942, the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, in compliance with Resolution No. XVII on Subversive Activities, designated the governments of seven American Republics to appoint representatives to serve on this new inter-American committee. The governments so named and their appointed representatives are: Argentina, Miguel Ángel Chiappe; Brazil, Dr. Mario de Pimentel Brandão; Chile, Ismael Valdés Florez; Mexico, Carlos Darío Ojeda; United States, Dr. Carl B. Spaeth; Uruguay, Dr. Alberto Guani; and Venezuela, Dr. Manuel A. Pulido Méndez. The Committee's functions, as approved by the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, will be to study the problems relating to all aspects of the political defense of the continent, to make

recommendations to the governments concerning such defense, and to study and coordinate the recommendations contained in the Resolution on Subversive Activities adopted at the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs.

At the inaugural session of the Committee Dr. Alberto Guani, Uruguayan delegate and Minister of Foreign Affairs, was elected chairman, and at the first regular meeting on April 16, 1942, the delegates of Brazil and Mexico were elected to serve as vice chairmen. The Committee will continue to hold its regular meetings at Montevideo, its permanent seat.

A regional conference on border control, convened by the Inter-American Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense, met in Rivera, Uruguay, during the week ending September 26, 1942, and was attended by delegates of Argentina, Brazil, Bolivia, Paraguay, and Uruguay. The conference approved seven recommendations directed toward achieving better supervision of travelers in South America. These recommendations covered the following topics: Interchange of information relative to travelers; uniformity in the travel documents required of South American citizens; special documents for travelers who are not citizens of South American countries; creation of a special frontier zone through which travelers must pass; the obliging of international travel agencies to require identification and other travel documents of all passengers; the same provision as the foregoing with respect to hotels and guests therein; and immediate registration of all foreign residents.

In fulfillment of another resolution (No. XVIII) adopted at the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs, the Inter-American Conference on the Coordination of Police and Judicial Measures met at Buenos Aires May 27-

June 9, 1942. The Conference was officially inaugurated and the delegates welcomed by Dr. Enrique Ruiz Guíñazú, Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina.

The program covered these subjects: national defense against espionage, sabotage, treason, sedition, and subversive activities; coordination of systems already established in each of the American Republics for (1) the identification of persons and registration of antecedents on their conduct and activities and (2) the exchange of information on the transfer of persons from one country to another; the establishment of regulations and procedure on court sentences and proceedings, extradition requests, and the expulsion of criminal foreigners; and cooperation among the civil authorities of all the American Republics, particularly with respect to the exchange of information and maintenance of contact with the military and naval authorities of the various countries.

Among the resolutions approved were recommendations concerning the formulation of an inter-American emergency law to combat subversive activities; establishment of an inter-American police union; vigilance over foreign associations; adoption of measures to avoid fraud in the obtaining of naturalization papers; energetic enforcement of existing laws and regulations; the suppression and prevention of propaganda favorable to nations that have committed acts of aggression against the American Republics; vigilance over fishing boats; and the creation in each country of inter-departmental committees charged with putting into practice the resolutions approved by the conference.

Argentine-Chilean postal agreements

Doctor Horacio C. Rivarola, Argentine Postmaster General, and Señor Raúl

Juliet Gómez, Chilean Postmaster General, signed, on behalf of their respective Governments, several postal agreements in Buenos Aires on July 13, 1942.

The first and most important agreement refers to the circulation of mail between Argentina and Chile via Bolivia, pending arrangements with the Bolivian authorities to use railway services across Bolivian territory.

Other agreements refer to airmail service and provide for the transportation of first class mail by the air route in case of the closing of the transandine land routes, the transportation by air within either country of mail dispatched by air mail in the country of origin, and an airmail service between Salta and Antofagasta.

Still another agreement sets up a uniform procedure for the handling of printed matter whose circulation is forbidden by the legislation of either country. Such mail is to be returned to the sender with an explanation.

It was also agreed to facilitate the exchange of postal officials between the two countries, thus bringing about a better mutual understanding of the respective systems. The possibilities of regular mail service via Bariloche-Puerto Blest-Peulla will be studied as a way to increase Chilean-Argentine postal communications. Also, as a result of the recent agreements, there will be regular interchange of communications between the radio stations of Chile and Argentina.

Bolivian-Chilean agreements

On August 10, 1942, three agreements were signed in La Paz by the Governments of Bolivia and Chile. The first relates to travel and is intended to facilitate mutual understanding between Chile and Bolivia through the exchange of tourists. The agreement provides that

Chileans and Bolivians can travel from one country to the other as tourists or students, or for their health, upon presentation of their identity cards. Tourists may remain in the country they are visiting for 90 days but may not engage in any commercial activities. The agreement also sets forth regulations regarding foreign residents and students in Bolivia and Chile.

The second agreement is a protocol on the upkeep of boundary markers and provides for a Mixed Commission of technicians to see to it that markers in bad condition are either repaired or replaced. It also provides that the accuracy of the markers be verified every 10 years.

The final agreement is supplementary to the protocol on boundary markers. It provides that the Mixed Commission shall meet in La Paz 30 days after the protocol goes into effect in order to draw up plans and initiate its work. The Commission's expenses are to be divided between the two countries.

Agreements between Chile and Paraguay

Four agreements were signed in recent months between the Governments of Chile and Paraguay giving an effective impulse to the promotion of commercial, economic, and cultural relations and better understanding between the two countries.

Under the terms of the first of these agreements Chile will annually offer to Paraguayan technical officials five fellowships in government administration, so that the Paraguayans may study Chilean administrative methods by holding governmental positions in Chile for one year.

The second agreement is designed to strengthen economic and financial relations between the two countries. It pro-

vides for the creation of: (1) a mixed commission to plan the basis of a commercial *modus vivendi* and later to draw up a trade agreement to promote commercial interchange; and (2) a mixed technical commission whose function will be to study the development of Paraguayan mining and other industries, the products of which may have a market in Chile; to study the possibilities of a commercial and financial accord between the two countries; and finally, to formulate a plan for reciprocal banking credits destined to further the acquisition by either country of the products of the other.

The third agreement relates to cultural interchange and provides that the two Governments will give all necessary official support to: (1) exchange of visits of university professors, scholars, scientists, authors, and artists for the purpose of lectures or conferences in their respective fields; (2) the establishment in the capital of each country of a permanent organization through which intellectual exchange between the two countries may be centralized; and (3) the creation by each country of ten scholarships, five for graduate and five for undergraduate students, for study in the other country.

The fourth accord, designed to facilitate tourist travel between the two nations, provides that citizens of either country may enter the territory of the other and remain three months without any papers other than their personal identity cards and a special tourist card to be issued without charge by the respective consuls.

These pacts, marking the initiation of a program of broader Paraguayan-Chilean cooperation in administrative, economic, and cultural affairs, are indicative of the type of inter-American collaboration suggested in the recommendations adopted at the Third Meeting of the Ministers of Foreign Affairs of the American Republics.

Inter-American Society of Anthropology and Geography

An Inter-American Society of Anthropology and Geography will be established January 1, 1943, in order to promote international cooperation among students of the cultures of the Americas. Since the war has cut off international journals from Europe, an increasing need has been felt for a means of exchanging information and views among American scientists. The new Society will fill this need and provide a means of formulating research problems and furthering scientific methods and objectives in anthropology, geography, and related social science research in the Americas.

A quarterly review will be published, beginning in 1943. Emphasis will be placed on articles with subject matter or methods of inter-American rather than local interest. Summaries of scientific progress in various regions and countries and discussions of research problems will be an important part of the content. Abstracts of recent important works will be published as well as news of personal and institutional activities. Publication will be primarily in Spanish, Portuguese, and English, but contributions in other languages may be accepted.

News of plans for the Society has been enthusiastically received throughout North and South America. In a recent four-month trip through South America, Dr. Julian Steward of the Smithsonian Institution discussed the Society with over two hundred persons and found universal acceptance of the general plan. In Argentina announcements of the Society have already been published by local scholars. The response from Mexico and the United States has been excellent.

As the holding of a general meeting is impossible at this time, and also because

the Smithsonian Institution has provided special facilities to assist in the preliminary organization, a Temporary Organizing Committee has undertaken to establish the Society and to conduct its affairs for a limited time. This Committee consists of Wendell C. Bennett, Yale University; Preston James, University of Michigan; Julian Steward, Smithsonian Institution; George Vaillant, University of Pennsylvania Museum; and Ralph L. Beals, on leave from the University of California, now at the Smithsonian Institution.

Membership in the Society is open to all persons interested in the anthropology and geography of the Americas. Dues for regular members and organizations are \$3 a year and include subscription to the review. As a special inducement to students, a student membership of \$2 a year is offered. Students must have their applications endorsed by two instructors and may remain in this category for only 3 years. Applications for membership are now being accepted and may be sent to Dr. Ralph L. Beals, Director of Latin American Ethnic Studies, Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.

Center to meet emergency needs of Latin American students

The Institute of International Education, 2 West 45th Street, New York, announced last October a new Counsel and Guidance Center to assist all Latin American students in the United States. Pointing out that the war has created many new problems for these students, and for others who may be coming here in future months, the announcement states that "the services of the new Counsel and Guidance Center will be available to any Latin American student in the United States desiring vocational or academic advice, contacts or opportunities."

Students who need employment are invited to get in touch with the Center, which will be glad to help them locate openings in their fields of special interest, and to advise them about government regulations which they must follow in order to work in this country. Latin American students who encounter various academic problems, such as finding a college or university offering courses which would best fit their needs, or the procedure to follow in applying for scholarships in United States institutions of higher learning, may also turn to the Guidance Center for assistance in solving such problems.

During the past academic year there were about 2,300 students from the other American republics in United States institutions of higher learning. Because of wartime transportation difficulties, many of these students have had to remain in this country long after the completion of their academic work, when they would normally expect to return home. Many students also find themselves without sufficient funds because of the adverse rate of foreign exchange, and it is necessary for them to obtain employment to help support themselves, or continue their education during the present emergency.

The Guidance Center expects to assist many Latin American students who need some sort of employment or desire special hospitality in the United States during the Christmas, spring, and summer vacation periods. Placements will include positions as counselors in summer camps, as instructors at summer schools and foreign-language institutes, or as part-time workers in numerous types of specialized fields.

All residents of the United States who wish to extend vocational opportunities or free hospitality to Latin American students are invited to communicate with the Counsel and Guidance Center at the

Institute of International Education. Introductions, and in some instances speaking engagements, are arranged to enable an individual or a group to become acquainted with Latin American students. An increasing volume of people in this country, earnestly interested in inter-American affairs, have discovered that through friendships with Latin American students they can gain a deeper understanding of the other American republics, even at a time when extensive travel between the Americas has become impossible.

A Normal School centennial in Chile

In Santiago, Chile, educators and government officials recently celebrated the centennial of the *Escuela Normal José Abelardo Núñez*. Established on June 14, 1842, with the name of *Escuela Normal de Preceptores*, this was the first normal school to be founded in Central and South America.

Early in the nineteenth century the forefathers of the new Republic had discussed the need for special courses to prepare the country's teachers. The credit for the final organization of the project, however, goes to two Chilean presidents—Manuel Bulnes, who was in office in 1842, and the future executive Manuel Montt, who at that time was Minister of Education.

The school modestly started with twenty-eight students, in a second story room of a central building facing the *Plaza de Armas*. On this building a commemorative bronze tablet was recently placed by the Society of Normal School Graduates. Similar tablets were fixed on other buildings in which the school has functioned.

A week of celebration was introduced by a large public meeting held in the Municipal Theatre, at which Juan Antonio

Ríos, President of Chile, proclaimed June 14 to be set aside annually as a day in honor of the teachers of Chile. Numerous luncheons, banquets, and receptions followed. Well documented speeches by educational officials outlined the valuable accomplishments of the school, and elderly graduates reminisced over intimate recollections. Fireworks, a band concert, and other special programs entertained the children of the neighborhood. The finals of sport contests were played off. A visit was made to the cemeteries, where graduates placed floral wreaths upon the tombs of the illustrious dead.

Perhaps no normal school in the world can boast of having had such a distinguished initial director. The first principal was the famous Argentine educator, Domingo Faustino Sarmiento, a refugee from the tyranny of the barbaric dictator Juan Manuel Rosas. Sarmiento had already taught in Argentina and Chile, and his caustic articles in the Chilean press were beginning to spur the intellectual circles of his adopted country. He personally taught most of the subjects offered in the new school. A student of the educational trends of his times, he was quick to introduce new fields of interest, such as the study of French. Sarmiento was a great admirer of United States democratic institutions, and when he came to this country he visited schools and strengthened his ties of friendship with educators. When President of Argentina, he brought down from the United States a mission of teachers for the newly founded normal schools. He was known as the great Educator President of Argentina.

Toward the end of the nineteenth century the school was named for a famous Chilean leader, José Abelardo Núñez. While Minister of Education, Abelardo Núñez reorganized the curriculum of the school and brought professors from Ger-

many who introduced the latest European methods. The school has always been a model for normals, not only in Chile, but in various Latin American countries. During its hundred years of existence it has developed and expanded to meet the teacher training needs of Chile, and it is now an *Escuela Normal Superior*, offering a graduate course for teachers who have already had experience and a special training program for school principals.—RUTH SEDGWICK, *Associate Professor of Spanish, Mount Holyoke College.*

The University of Habana's Summer Session in 1942

Despite the expected obstacles to transportation because of war, many North American students attended the second session of the University of Habana's "Escuela de Verano." These students came from States as far west as Wisconsin and Michigan, from New England, and from the Southeast, and included teachers and undergraduates, nonprofessionals, doctors, a librarian—thus representing diverse fields of interest. Some came in the group sponsored by the Institute of International Education, while others made their plans independently. Some stayed in hotels, while others preferred Cuban pensions. The group, then, was not a stereotyped one.

There was a well-planned and interesting offering of courses in language and in the history, literature, and philosophy of Latin America and of Spain (including, of course, those special courses which would orientate the student to Cuban history and culture). Of especial interest this year was the course in tropical medicine.

From the United States came Dr. William Beer of Boston University, Dr. Marcus Gordon Brown of Georgia School

of Technology, and Dr. Robert McNicoll of the University of Miami to join Dr. Fernando Ortiz, president of the Institución Hispano-Cubana de Cultura, Dr. José Rubio Barcia, ex-professor of the University of Granada, Dr. Medardo Vitier of the Matanzas Normal School, and Dr. José M. Valdés Rodríguez of the Academy of Dramatic Arts, among other guest professors.

Practically all of the students took part enthusiastically in the extra-curricular activities, which included concerts, weekly lectures, an exhibition of Cuban art, an offering of Spanish films, and informal parties when Cuban and other Latin American students met with North American and refugee European students to exchange ideas and music and to establish friendships.

The excursions were especially popular and every week-end there was something new to be seen in the city of Habana or in the surrounding provinces. There were visits to sugar refineries and factories, to the scenic valley of Viñales, to the incredibly beautiful beach of Varadero where the sky and sea are of an intense blue, and as a culminating point, to the historic city of Trinidad. There, away from the noise of automobiles and other urban necessities, walking along the narrow cobbled streets filled with children and *guajiros* on their burros, and admiring the architecture of sixteenth- and seventeenth-century Cuba, one had indeed the sense of being in a strange world.

The six weeks came to a close all too soon. Pan American Airways brought us

safely home; but even now, when winter has already come to the United States, we continue to think of the Malecón, Morro Castle, the Prado and all the enchantments of Habana, and of our friends and teachers of the University. This summer session of the University of Habana was indeed a success.—DOROTHY L. SCOTT, *Morehouse College.*

Inter-American Photographic Competition

Amateur and professional photographers of the Americas will have an opportunity to display their art at the Inter-American Photographic Exhibit to be conducted by the Pan American Union in January 1943.

Each of the twenty-one American Republics will enter twenty-one pictures which have been selected after national competitions in each country.

The United States competition will be conducted jointly by the Photographers' Association of America and the Photographic Society of America, the former to select the eleven best professional photographs, the latter to choose the ten outstanding amateur works.

At the conclusion of the inaugural showing at the Pan American Union, the exhibit will travel to the leading museums of the United States and, if circumstances permit, it will be displayed also in the capital cities of the other American republics.

The First Inter-American Photographic Exhibit was held last year at the Pan American Union.

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